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For J A N U A R Y, 1787.

Traacts Mathematical and Philosophical. By Charles Hutton, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. and Professor of Mathematics in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. 4to. 14s. in Boards. Robinsons.

THE volume now before us is of a miscellaneous nature, being partly mathematical and partly philosophical. The mathematical parts consist of discoveries and improvements in algebra and infinite series, and in speculative geometry; and the philosophical part in experiments and dissertations in artillery, relating to projectiles, gunpowder, the nature of guns, the resistance of the air, the doctrine of forces and angular motion, &c. all treated with a degree of perspicuity and elegance which would seem to be the result of long and careful polishing, instead of being executed on the spur of the occasion, as it appears was really the case.

Our author observes, 'that the preference given of late, even among professed philosophers, to studies of a less abstract kind, has too frequently diverted the pursuits of mathematicians into paths less suited to their talents, from the desire of a vain and fleeting popularity, instead of the more laudable ambition of making real improvements in the sciences which they had professed to cultivate. The humble consciousness which the author has ever entertained of his own abilities, has, he hopes, preserved him from this common and pernicious vanity. However solicitous to extend and diversify his own acquirements, he can only hope to add, and that a little, to the public stock of knowledge, in those parts of science to which his early habits, and subsequent occupations, have led him peculiarly to consecrate his studies.' And again, 'The very honourable distinction paid to the author by the Royal Society, for his former experiments in gunnery, as well as their general indulgence to his attempts in other mathematical subjects, would perhaps have given an obvious destination to these papers, had he not thought their publication in a col-

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lective form better adapted, from the connection of their subject, to extend their utility.'—A sentiment which, if real, must appear uncommonly modest to those who are aware of the unphilosophical disturbances which lately agitated that body. But, whatever may be the motives which produced this volume in its present form, it is our duty only to give an account of the Tracts according to their merit.

The first is intitled 'A Dissertation on the Nature and Value of Infinite Series.' This Tract, it appears, is delivered as preparatory to those that follow in this volume, and that are promised in future volumes of the work; and enumerates the different acceptations annexed to the terms *sum* or *value*, &c. of an infinite series, and the controversies that have taken place concerning them, among the mathematicians of the last and present age. And here our author, to avoid such discordant opinions and sentiments, has adopted the new term *radix*, instead of the *sum* or *value* of a series, as more general and unexceptionable, applying to all series, under the very natural idea of its being the finite expression from whence the series might properly arise by evolution, and which, therefore, may be substituted as an equivalent instead of it, in any mathematical operation.

The second Tract is 'A New Method for the Valuation of Numeral Infinite Series, whose Terms are alternately plus and minus.' This is one of those happy discoveries which, from their obviousness and simplicity, both charm and surprise us, and make us wonder they had not been discovered before. The generality of this method is such, that it is equally applicable to all series of alternate signs, whether they be converging or diverging, or what the author calls neutral, leaving all the terms equal. In ease and simplicity, it far excels any other; as it consists only in collecting the successive sums of a few of the initial terms of the series, and then taking continual sets of arithmetical means between those successive sums, by which the radix or value is presently and accurately found, when it is rational, or else a very quick approximation to it in all other cases. The truth of this method is demonstrated, independently of any other, from the nature of the series itself, and a general expression for the value is given in all cases; from which also the famous differential series is here deduced, and thereby shewn to be of the same degree of convergency with it. One excellence of this method is, that the slower a given series converges or diverges, the sooner and easier is its sum found; and by it the value is instantly found in all cases of neutral series. This method is illustrated by an application to a variety of series, the last of which is a very difficult hyper-

hypergeometrical one; upon the summation of which the late famous M. Euler expressly wrote a long and intricate dissertation, in the New Petersburg Commentaries, vol. v.

The third Tract is, 'A Method of quickly summing a very slowly converging Series, having all its Terms, plus or additive.' The foregoing method in the preceding Tract, as well as any other founded on the alternation of the signs of the terms, is of no use here, where the terms are all positive. At first sight indeed it is natural to imagine, that such series as those in the present article, having their terms all additive, must be simpler in their nature, and so easier to be summed, than those series whose terms are alternately plus and minus: but, on examination, the fact turns out quite different. For while the methods for summing the alternate series are numerous and easy, we have hitherto had none by which the very slow series, whose terms are all additive, can be summed from the series itself, nor yet by transforming it into another, with any moderate degree of accuracy. The method, therefore, here given, very happily supplies this long desideratum in the summation of series. By means of it the given series is transformed into another equivalent one, having this happy quality, namely, that it converges always so much the faster as the given series is slower, the very property by which the summation is effected.

In the next Tract is given the Investigation of certain easy and general Rules, for extracting any Root of a given Number. The roots of numbers are commonly to be found, with ease and expedition, by the tables of logarithms, when the indices of the roots are simple numbers, and the roots are not required to a great many places of figures: but in other cases, certain approximating rules must be used, such as have been given by Newton, Raphson, De Lagny, and Halley, who have shewn that the investigation of such theorems is also useful in discovering rules for approximating to the roots of all sorts of affected algebraical equations, to which the former rules for the roots of all simple equations bear a considerable affinity. The rules here given in this article, have greatly the advantage of any of the former, in point of ease, simplicity, and universality, both of investigation and application.

The fifth contains a new method of finding infinite and general terms, the roots of the higher equations, either accurate or approximately, in a direct manner. Here also new lights are thrown upon the nature and properties of the roots of equations, and upon certain terms in arithmetical progressions.

The next is a very important Tract concerning the famous binomial theorem, which is shewn to be much older than has commonly been imagined. The author threw strong lights on the history and improvements of this theorem, in the Introduction to his Logarithmic Tables, published last year, where he clearly proved, for the first time, that it was fully laid down by Briggs for all integral powers; and that although Newton might re-invent the theorem, being probably unacquainted with what Briggs had done, yet his discovery is no more than the application of fractional exponents to the rule before given. The history is again taken up and carried much farther: it is shewn, that the arithmetical triangle, and the coefficients of the terms of all powers of a binomial, are extant in writers about the year 1500; that it is probable the knowledge of them existed much earlier; and that, therefore, the pretensions of Paschal, more than a century afterwards, are vain and erroneous. A history of the demonstrations of this theorem, with specimens of each are then given. It does not appear that Newton ever attempted one, or if he did, failing of success, he has left no traces of it, but satisfied himself with conclusions from induction. Since his time, some few demonstrations have been given, chiefly by means of fluxions. A new and general demonstration is then added by our author, for the most general case of fractional exponents, by the only genuine method of algebraical investigation, and independent of the principles of fluxions. And, what is singular, and never before attempted, a demonstration is given of the *form* of the series, with respect to the law of the indices of the terms in the series for any power of the binomial.

The two following Tracts are very curious, and of a nature purely geometrical. The former of them treats of the common sections of the sphere and cone; with the demonstration of some other new properties of the sphere, which are similar to certain known properties of the circle; forming a curious specimen of a new part of the theory of geometry, demonstrated in a truly pure and legitimate manner.

The next is the geometrical division of circles and ellipses into any number of parts, and in any proposed ratios; a thing hitherto thought impossible. Our author says, 'In the year 1774, was published a pamphlet with this title, *A Dissertation on the Geometrical Analysis of the Ancients. With a Collection of Theorems and Problems, &c.* This pamphlet was anonymous: it was, however, well known to myself, and to several other persons, that the author of it was the late Mr. John Lawson, B. D. rector of Swanscombe, in Kent; an ingenious and learned geometrician, and, what is still more estimable,

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a most worthy and good man; one in whose heart was found no guile, and whose pure integrity, joined to the most amiable simplicity of manners, and sweetness of temper, gained him the affection and respect of all who had the happiness to be acquainted with him. His collection of problems concluded with this singular one. "To divide a circle into any number of parts, which shall be as well equal in area as in circumference. N. B. *This may seem a paradox; however, it may be effected in a manner strictly geometrical.*" The solution of this seeming paradox he reserved to himself, as far as I know. I fell upon the discovery, however, soon after, and other persons might do the same.' The solution of this paradoxical problem is delivered in a purely geometrical manner. The same thing is also extended to the like division of ellipses; and several other curious properties of the parts of a circle are added.

The last Tract in this volume is given as the most important, and extends through upwards of one hundred and seventy pages. It is intitled 'New Experiments in Artillery; for determining the Force of fired Gunpowder, the initial Velocity of Cannon Balls, the Ranges of Pieces of Cannon at different Elevations, the Resistance of the Air to Projectiles, the Effect of different Lengths of Cannon, and of different Quantities of Powder, &c. &c.' It appears that these experiments, of which this Tract gives the relation and consequences, have been the chief employment of the author in the summers of 1783, 4, and 5; and are the continuation of those he performed in the year 1775, an account of which was given in the Philosophical Transactions for 1778, and for which the Royal Society honoured the author with the gold medal. This present course of three years experiments has extended its objects and accuracy greatly beyond the former, which are the only experiments of this kind hitherto made with cannon balls. The objects of them are various, such as the actual initial velocities of balls, the effects of different lengths of the gun, of different quantities of powder, the charge that gives the greatest velocity, the penetration of balls into blocks of wood, the ranges and times of flight of balls projected in given directions, with the effects also of wads, of ramming, of different positions of the vent, of windage, &c. All which circumstances are useful either for the improvement of artillery, or for forming a true and practical theory of gunnery, including the effects of the resistance of the medium. For effecting these purposes, the number and accuracy of the experiments detailed are truly great, and the machines and apparatus most ample and complete; the master-general of the ordnance having ordered these experiments, and given directions for casting

several brass cannon on purpose, and for providing powder, and all other necessary machines; all which are minutely described, and illustrated by views of them in copper-plates. We observe here also many improvements in the rules for computing the initial velocities, and for determining the effects of some disturbing causes on those velocities, in a very philosophical and masterly manner. At the end of all a few inferences and conclusions are drawn, as permanent principles to be depended on, and applied whenever occasion requires, such as the following; 1st, That the velocity of the ball is as the square root of the charge of powder, so far as till the length of the charge bears some considerable proportion to the length of the gun. 2. That the length of the charge that produces the greatest velocity is about $\frac{3}{10}$ of the length of the bore in the shortest gun of 14 calibers long, but about $\frac{3}{20}$ in the longest of 40 calibers, and proportionally between $\frac{3}{10}$ and $\frac{3}{20}$ for the intermediate lengths of guns. 3. That the rates of increase in the velocity for the increase in the length of the gun, is between the square roots and cube roots of the length. 4. That the ranges are nearly as the square root of the initial velocity, or as the fifth root of the length of the gun. 5. That the time of flight is nearly as the range. 6. That a great difference in the velocity arises from a small degree of windage; indeed with the usual establishment of windage only, namely, about $\frac{1}{20}$ of the caliber, no less than between $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ escapes, and is lost; and that as the balls are often smaller than that size, it frequently happens that half the powder is lost by unnecessary windage. 7. That the resisting force of wood to balls fired into it, is not constant; but that the depths penetrated by different velocities are nearly as the logarithms of the velocities. 8. That balls are greatly deflected from the direction they are projected in; and that so much as 300 or 400 yards in the range of a mile, or almost $\frac{1}{4}$ of the range, which is nearly a deflection of an angle of 15 degrees. And, 9. That these experiments furnish us with the following concomitant *data*, to a considerable degree of accuracy; namely, the dimensions and elevation of the gun, the weight and dimensions of the powder and ball, the initial velocity of the ball, with the range and time of flight: from which it is hoped that the measure of the resistance of the air to projectiles may be determined, and thereby lay the foundation for a true and practical system of gunnery, which may be as well useful in service as in theory: a work which our author gives room to expect from his future labours.

Upon the whole we have found this volume to be replete with many ingenious and useful discoveries,

Letters

Letters on Egypt. By Mr. Savary. (Concluded from Vol. lxii. p. 446.)

ON quitting the celebrated Thebes with its hundred gates, Mr. Savary proceeds towards Esne, in the road to which he passes Armant, formerly Hermunthis, adorned with two ancient temples, built in honour of Jupiter and Apollo. The latter is still in good preservation. Between Thebes and Sienna one frequently perceives crocodiles basking on the sandy islands, left uncovered by the Nile, when it retires; but on the approach of boats they precipitate themselves into the water.

Letter XXXVII. traces the route from Esne to the last Cataract. Our author's journey is now almost finished; and, considering both the danger and difficulties with which it was often attended, he must have sincerely congratulated himself on that agreeable event. He was at this time approaching the tropic. The southerly wind, with its burning breath, blowed in gusts, and raised up whirlwinds of sands destructive to man and beast. Happily, this dangerous wind seldom continues for two days together; but then it is sometimes sufficient to make the caravans be swallowed up in the middle of the deserts.

Mr. Savary informs us, that travelling through Egypt, from one extremity to the other, he saw it sensibly changing its decoration. The verdure, the flowers, the harvests, rapidly succeed each other, in consequence of the progressive inundation, and the heat of the climate.

Above Esne is the village of Edfou, built on the ruins of the great city of Apollo. Here is an ancient temple covered with hieroglyphics, amongst which may be distinguished men with falcons heads. Its inhabitants were enemies of the crocodile. At some leagues from Edfou, the bed of the river, hemmed in by rocks which project to the right and left, is only fifty fathoms wide. The rocks on the western side are hewn in the shape of grottoes; and there are columns, pilasters, and hieroglyphics, with a chapel cut out of a solid stone.

After passing this place, the traveller discovers, to the east of the Nile, Coam Ombo. The ruins of a temple, situated at the foot of this hill, ascertain the position of the ancient Ombos, the inhabitants of which honoured the crocodile. These animals are very common thus high up the Nile. One sees them descend in droves from the isles of sand, and swim in long strings in the river. It seems as if these formidable animals had fixed their habitation near to a town where they received homage; but what renders them more numerous here than in the other parts of Egypt, is the solitude of the situ-

ation, the banks of the Nile in this place being almost deserted.

Our author terminated his navigation at the port of Assouan, formerly Sienna ; of which he presents us with the local descriptions, as traced out by the best writers of antiquity, adding the picture of their present situation, and the changes which have taken place. Sienna is immediately under the tropic ; and, according to Strabo, a well was dug there which marked the summer solstice. This day was discovered when the gnomon of the dial gave no shadow at noon. At that moment the vertical sun darted his rays to the bottom of the well, and his whole image was painted on the water that covered the bottom.

Mr. Savary informs us, that the isle of Elephantina, which lies before this place, is half a league long, by a quarter wide. The town described by Strabo no longer subsists. A small village is built on its ruins. Near to them stands a superb gate of granite, which formed the entrance of one of the porticoes of the temple of Cnept. A building surrounded by thick walls and rubbish, formerly made a part of it ; and an elevated rampart at the point of the island served to defend it against the inundation. The famous nilometer, so favourably situated in this place, to discover the first appearance of the increase of the waters, and to regulate the labours of the husbandman, appears no more. Our author, however, thinks, with probability, that this nilometer, formed of a block of marble cannot have been destroyed ; but that it is buried under the sand and mud of the Nile, whence it may one day be extricated.

The isle of Elephantina is surrounded by four smaller ones, which are only rocks of granite. Enormous masses have been detached from them to be employed in the great edifices of Egypt. It is from one of these islets that the great cube, of sixty feet on each side, was taken, in the solid of which was hewn the sanctuary of the temple of Latona at Butis. Dr. Pococke places this large stone in the temple of Minerva at Sais ; but that, as our author observes, is in direct contradiction to Herodotus, who gives the description of it, and affirms that he saw it at Butis, in the temple of Latona. This is the most enormous weight ever moved by human power ; and history informs us, that several thousand workmen were employed three years in conveying it to the place of destination.

The remains of Sienna are on an eminence which rises to the south of Assouan. Columns and pillars of granite, dispersed in several places, point out its site. Mr. Savary remarked an ancient edifice, with openings at the top, and windows which look towards the east. This, he thinks, may have

been the observatory of the Egyptians. The well of the solstice, he likewise conjectures, might correspond with one of these openings, and the image of the sun display itself on the surface of the water which covered the bottom.

Mr. Savary observes, it is very astonishing, that, for eighteen hundred years, no traveller should have stopped at Sienna a few days before the summer solstice, to search for this wonderful well, and to establish so interesting a discovery. We cannot help regretting, that this remark is likewise applicable to himself; but when we know the great difficulties and dangers, exclusive of the tropical climate, attending a journey in those parts; we shall less wonder at the apparent neglect of travellers, with regard to ascertaining a fact so intimately connected with the astronomical knowledge of the ancient Egyptians. In respect of our author, he informs us, that having travelled with a limited fortune, and without the aid of government, he did not go so high up as Sienna, where it would have been necessary to remain at least a week, because these journeys are very expensive, and it is impossible to be in safety from robbers, but by making continual presents to the governors, and by keeping some janizaries in pay.

The cataract remains in the state in which it is described by Strabo. The rock which bars the middle of the river, is bare during six months of the year. Then boats mount and descend by the sides. During the inundation, the waters heaped up between the mountains form one great sheet, and, breaking down every obstacle, spring from eleven feet height. The boats can no longer ascend the stream; and merchandize must be conveyed two leagues over land, above the cataract; they descend, however, as usual, and suffer themselves to be plunged into the gulf. They precipitate themselves into it with the rapidity of an arrow, and in an instant are out of sight. It is necessary for the boats to be moderately laden, and for the boatmen, who hold by the stern, to be in exact equilibrium, otherwise they would be infallibly swallowed in the abyss.

The isle of Phile is only half a league round. The Ethiopians and Egyptians inhabited it anciently in common. At present it is deserted, but the traveller admires there two magnificent temples. The larger has courts ornamented with colonnades. The first of them is entered by a pyramidal gate, on the side of which are two obelisks of granite. The inside of the temple is divided into several apartments. Its walls, formed of marble, present several rows of hieroglyphics, amongst which is distinguishable the sparrow-hawk described by Strabo. To the east of this edifice is another, which forms a parallelogram. It is open on all sides. The capitals of the columns which support the roof are sculptured with art.

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In the subsequent Letter, our author describes the Oasis, or islands in the middle of sands, and the temple of Jupiter Ammon, with the routes leading thither. It appears that the Oasis of Ammon is little known by the modern Egyptians. They are better acquainted with the second. Abulfeda, as our author observes, places there a city, named Behnese, and different from that one seen on the canal of Joseph. He marks another higher up, that corresponds with that of Achmonain, and around which are admired magnificent remains of antiquity. The great Oasis, the most frequented of the three, being on the road of the caravans of Abyssinia, contains a great number of inhabitants. The route to this place is extremely dangerous. Our author informs us, that travellers, who set out from the fertile valley situated under the tropic, march seven days journey before they reach the first town in Ethiopia. They proceed in the day by establishing signals, and at night by observing the stars. The hills of sand frequently deceive the guides, who, if led ever so little astray from their route, the camels, after living for five or six days without water, sink under their burthen and die. The men soon follow the same fate; and sometimes out of a numerous caravan, not a single traveller escapes. At other times, the scorching southerly winds lift up whirlwinds of dust, which stifle man and beast. The next caravan that passes beholds the earth covered with dead bodies, perfectly dried up. These dangers, however, do not deter the Abyssinians, who, from the most remote antiquity, have been the carriers of gold dust, of musk, and elephants teeth into Egypt.

Letter XXXIX. contains Observations on the Increase of the Nile. The origin of this celebrated river, though studiously investigated, was never discovered in ancient times; but, by more recent enquiries, it has at length been ascertained. In the months of March, April, May, and June, the northerly winds drive the clouds towards the lofty mountains on the other side of the equator. Stopped by this barrier, they collect in heaps upon their summits, and dissolve into rain, which falls in torrents, and overflows the valleys. The junction of an innumerable multitude of streams, issuing thence, forms the Nile, and produces the annual inundation. From the unanimous testimony of the Abyssinians, who bring the gold-dust to Grand Cairo, we learn that this river, on reaching Ethiopia, separates itself into two branches, one of which, known by the name of Aserac, or the Blue River, strikes off to join the Niger, and traversing Africa from east to west, discharges itself into the Atlantic ocean. The other branch flows towards the north, between two chains of mountains, and,

and, meeting with rocks of granite which obstruct its bed, forms six cataracts, far more frightful than those of Sienna.

Though the inundation of the Nile be generally well known, it may not be improper to mention a few particulars relative to this subject, as they are fully authenticated by Mr. Savary's own observation. At the beginning of June the Nile begins to swell, but its increase is not very sensible until the solstice. At this period its waters become troubled, assuming a reddish tinge, and are then esteemed unwholesome. They must be purified before they are drinkable. This is done by throwing the powder of bitter almonds, bruised, into a jar full of water, and stirring them for some minutes with the arm plunged in the middle of the vessel. After this operation they are left to settle, and at the end of five or six hours, all the heterogeneous particles are precipitated to the bottom of the vessel, and the water is clear and excellent. The inhabitants of Egypt attribute this fermentation of the Nile to the dew which then falls in abundance; but it is much more natural to imagine with our author, that the river, overflowing its banks in Abyssinia and Ethiopia, carries with it a great quantity of sand, and millions of eggs of insects, which, hatching towards the solstice, produce the fermentation of the waters, and that reddish tinge that renders them unwholesome.

The inundation of the Nile is celebrated over Egypt with great rejoicings, which are described by our author in a lively manner; but for this we refer to the work.

In Letter XL. Mr. Savary delivers a particular account of the government of Egypt, from which it appears that the authority of the Porte is far from being regarded with great veneration in this country. Two subsequent Letters present us with the history of Ali Bey, concerning whose numerous exploits our author appears to have been well informed. These are followed by a series of highly interesting Letters, relative to the agriculture of the country, the temperature of the climate, the different inhabitants of Egypt, their marriages, and the revolutions in the commerce of that country, from the most remote antiquity to the present time. The learned author next treats of the ancient religion of the Egyptians, which he supposes to have originally subsisted pure amongst the priests, and those who were initiated in the sacred mysteries; but to have been gradually corrupted by the people, who neglected the Creator, whilst they adored his works. Twenty successive Letters are afterwards employed on the allegorical history of the Egyptian deities, whose origin, nature, and worship, are detailed by our author with much precision, and with no little investigation into the intricacies of ancient mythology. The first of those deities was Athor, or the Night; the second, Phtha,

Phtha, Neith, and Cneph, all which denoted the Supreme Being. The visible gods specified are, Osiris, Ammon, Horus, the celestial Serapis, Harpocrates, Mendes, Iris, Sothis, Bubastis, Butis, the Nile, Apis, Mnevis and Onuphis; the terrestrial Serapis, Anubis, Typhon Nephthys, Canobus, and Thoth. To these are subjoined, in so many distinct Letters, an Account of the Vocal Statue of Memnon, Reflections on the Religious Worship of the Egyptians, and Observations on the Hieroglyphics.

We need add no more with regard to the uncommon merit of these Letters, than that they afford the most complete account of Egypt that has hitherto appeared in any language. In description, Mr. Savary is particularly animated; in observations and reflections, his judgment is every where conspicuous; and he displays, through the whole, such a degree of learning and information, local and general, as must render his travels highly interesting to those who wish to behold a faithful and extensive parallel of the ancient and modern state of this celebrated country.

History of the War with America, France, Spain, and Holland.
By John Andrews, LL. D. In Four Volumes, with Portraits,
Maps, and Charts. 8vo. 1l. 10s. in Boards. Fielding.

SINCE the downfall of the ancient monarchies, so extensive a dominion has not been wrested from any power, as that of North America, lately, from the sovereignty of the British crown. Nor do we find, in all history, a more signal confirmation of the remark, that the slightest causes may often be productive of the most important effects. This great event is a solecism in the annals of politics; and merits, on account of its example and consequences, as well as its novelty, to be transmitted to the latest ages in historical detail. The writer, however, who would now compose such a history, has a multitude of difficulties to encounter. If a Briton, he must examine the claims of his own country without predilection, and the repugnance of America without prejudice; he must endeavour to ascertain facts, divested of the frequent misrepresentations of either party; and he must assign to their proper origin the motives, and plans, and intrigues, and incidents, which arose from the beginning to the end of this memorable contest. Whilst he likewise examines the general character of the times, on both sides of the Atlantic, he must develop that of the several individuals, who had the most conspicuous share in exciting, conducting, or influencing the war between the two countries. Of all the circumstances which have been enumerated

rated as necessary for the historian's information, the last, though one of the most important, is yet, perhaps, the most difficult to be ascertained in the present age; a consideration which must greatly affect the value of any contemporary detail of those transactions. But, so far as a work of this kind can be executed from materials generally known; so far as information can be collected from acts of public notoriety; and, in a word, so far as faithful compilation can avail, the author of the History now before us has performed the task in a manner by no means reprehensible. As a specimen of the author's mode of reasoning on the causes of the war, we present our readers with the following extract on this subject.

' There was a generosity even in the restrictions of Great Britain, on the trade of her colonies, that shewed they were not imposed in the wantonness of power; but evidently with a design to repartition, as it were, the exercise and profits of commerce among the various inhabitants of her wide-extended dominions.

' While her subjects at home were free to trade to all parts of the world, the same permission, in a numerous variety of articles, was granted to her colonists; the northern climes of Europe and the East Indies only were excepted. In Portugal, Spain, Italy, throughout the Mediterranean sea, on the coasts of Africa, in all the American hemisphere, the vessels of the North American colonies enjoyed the most unbounded and lucrative commerce.

' The encouragement given to this commerce was equally wise and beneficent. It tended in the directest manner to the improvement of their country, by increasing its commodities through an abundant exportation, and enabling them to clear and cultivate the soil, through the sure and constant sale of the vast quantity of timber for all kinds of uses, that accrued from the cutting down of their immense forests.

' Beside these two advantages, both of a capital and essential nature, they possessed others hardly less beneficial. They carried rum and sugar, together with the produce of their fisheries, to every market within the above specified limits. These branches employed such a multitude of shipping, that the ports of those countries where they traded were continually visited, and often crowded with them.

' True it is, that a number of articles were also appropriated to an importation into Great Britain exclusively; but when we duly consider this matter, it will be found that the very nature of the countries possessed by the colonists, gave them sufficient occupation at home, without rendering it any ways necessary for their prosperity, that they should employ themselves so much abroad, as the inhabitants of a soil occupied by a numerous people, and whose tillage had lasted for ages.

' It was reasonable, therefore, to allot them principally the task of clearing and cultivating the immense tracts they inhabit;

bit; this would always prove a profitable business, and enable them to procure themselves, on their own bottom, a never-failing fund, from whence to supply all their wants, and to furnish, besides, a plentiful supply for the purposes of trade.

‘ The proof of this is, that those places which are in the highest cultivation, abound most in riches and people. The population of Pennsylvania, which was founded fifty years after some of the other colonies, bids fair, in time, to exceed them all.

‘ In the mean time, the trade in those articles of which Great Britain reserved the benefit to herself, did not interfere with the main pursuit of the colonists. This being chiefly the purchase of the conveniencies of life, there was certainly no country where the colonists could find them generally in greater, if so great perfection; and, considering their intrinsic value, where they could find them cheaper.

‘ Another consideration occurs, and that of the most material nature. The situation of the colonies is such, that it often happens in their dealings abroad, that a long course of credit is necessary for them. This they can find no where but in England. The opulence of our merchants is so superior to that of those in any other country upon earth, that it enables them to wait for the returns of their trade, much beyond the time that any others can afford.

‘ Neither should it be forgotten, that the amplest liberty of trading in all their reciprocal commodities, subsisted between North America and the English West Indies. This was a fund from whence they derived immense resources; as it opened a channel through which they carried out a *world* of articles of their own produce, and received supplies not only for their own consumption, but for the demands of that extensive commerce which they carried on in so many parts of the globe.

‘ Thus it appears, that notwithstanding the several restraints that took place on the American trade, enough was left to render them a rich and flourishing people. That they were such in reality, is well known to all who have the least acquaintance with that country. Its happiness was visible to all who visited it. If ever any country might have been styled the seat of human felicity, British North America most unquestionably deserved the appellation:

‘ To say that no partialities existed in favour of Great Britain, would certainly be a violation of truth; but let an unprejudiced man weigh in the scale of justice, the conduct observed by Great Britain towards her colonies, and that which foreign states have pursued in respect to theirs, and then let him decide which is the most consistent with humanity, justice, and policy.

‘ The great complaint of America, was the discouragement of manufactures, by confining every province to the use of its own, and preventing the reciprocal importation of their respective fabrications. This, it cannot be denied, was a severe regulation; but when we reflect, on the other hand, that most, if

if not all of the articles thus prohibited, could be purchased at a cheaper rate from England, the idea of severity naturally annexed to such a prohibition, is much diminished; and it almost vanishes away on the additional consideration, that the hands thus employed would have been much more beneficially taken up, both in a public and in a private light, in the great and important business of agriculture, or of navigation.

‘It ought, nevertheless, to be allowed, that to curb the disposition of a whole people towards any branch of industry or ingenuity, is a measure to which it cannot be expected that human nature will tamely submit. It is viewed as a species of affront to the understanding. The detriment that may possibly arise from the prohibition, is not so much resented as the prohibition itself.

‘As mankind, therefore, will generally bear oppression much more easily than insult, it is probable that the rigorous injunctions precluding the sale of any manufacture of their own make, beyond their provincial boundaries, appeared to the Americans as calculated to crush their native talents in the very infancy of their exertion, and to cut off the very hope of ever arriving at those advantages to which they were of right intitled.

‘Preventions of this nature are always the more odious, as they seem levelled at the abilities of a people, and designed as it were to keep them in a state of natural inferiority. For this reason, undoubtedly, they were esteemed a heavy grievance throughout the American colonies; and every individual conspired, as it were, as much as in him lay, to elude them.

‘It was probably owing to the discontent arising from regulations of this sort, that the liberality with which Great Britain acted in other instances, was overlooked. She not only abstained from the laying of duties on her own manufactures, but took off those on foreign articles when exported to America. Herein her conduct was very different from that of the other European states with regard to their colonists, whom they force to receive such goods, loaded with all the duties they are charged with in their own ports.

‘While this indulgence lasted, goods of foreign fabrication were often considerably lower in price, in some of the colonies, than in some parts of Europe itself.’

This work may serve as a connected detail of the late war, sufficient to gratify curiosity, until Time, the great elucidator of causes, as well as of effects, shall furnish the yet latent, but most genuine and curious documents of legitimate history.

The Carse of Stirling, an Elegy. 4to. 1s. Johnson.

CARSE, we are told, signifies ‘a low flat country, of a rich clayey soil.’ The picturesque beauties belonging to that of Stirling are well described in the Preface, and exhibited in a more striking and luxuriant manner in the poem.

‘Almost

‘ Almost all our favourite Scots songs and ballads, says the author, are remarkable for local descriptions. Not a stream could flow, nor a hillock rear its blossomed head, but poetry felt the influence, and drew the picture; and, while Tweed, Yarrow, Leader, &c. with their pastoral charms, are repeatedly handed down to us in the most passionate strains, the windings of the Forth, and all its uncommon scenery, have remained unsung, or at least too slightly to leave an impression.’

The *banks of the Forth* have, however, been celebrated in a well known song of that name, though they certainly never had so much justice done them as in the present performance; which is not merely intended to amuse but instruct; by recommending to gentlemen of landed property, the cultivation of their paternal farms, and the harmless pleasures of a country life. But though neither poetry nor reason will convince the generality of the expediency of such a conduct, yet the picture, like other well drawn landscapes, may well amuse their eyes, though it may not improve their understandings. We give the following elegant little episode as a specimen.

‘ Mild was the eve, and gently wav’d the grove,
Fresh were the flowers that deck’d the green-sward gay,
When down the slope where coo’d the woodland dove
I found my Laura near the vocal spray.

‘ Blithe roam’d the fair one round th’ encircling wood,
Till by the brook that skirts the hawthorn glade
We came where late a spreading poplar stood,
But now across the stream supinely laid.

‘ The tender Laura starting, heav’d a sigh,
(For by this tree the maid had often fate),
The tear of sorrow fill’d each lovely eye,

“ And art thou fallen, she said, “ that bloom’st so late !”

“ Atlas, my Edwin ! scarce three days are past
Since I beheld this poplar gaily grow ;
Yet see, my friend ! how soon the ruthless blast
Has laid its strength and towering grandeur low.

“ And what is man, with all his boasted power !
Ah ! what tho’ youth and roseate beauties bloom !
E’en thus he falls, when in some luckless hour
Stern death untimely shrouds him in the tomb !”

‘ Cease, lovely Moralist ! I fondly said,
While to my breast I clasp’d the charming fair,
Let love and transport bless this secret shade,
And from thy bosom banish grief and care.

‘ Say, why this sad, though sweetly plaintive strain ?
My life ! my love ! our youth was made for glee ;
Ah ! wherefore think of death, or thus complain,
When Edwin thinks of nought but love and thee ?

‘ The fair one smil’d, and flush’d with modest charms,
In whispering accents breath’d this soft return,
“ Should death untimely snatch thee from my arms,
Ah me ! should Laura have no cause to mourn.”

The Plays of Shakspeare. (Concluded from Vol. lxii. p. 329.)

WHEN we spoke of the enthusiasm of the nation for their great dramatic poet, we were not acquainted with the monument designed to be raised to his memory, in an edition of his works, executed in the most beautiful manner, adorned with the choicest productions of art, at a period when the arts flourish with a spirit and vigour formerly unknown. The French have ornamented their favourite Fontaine with the united elegancies of printing and sculpture; they designed to have decorated their Voltaire: but whatever has been yet executed or promised in this way are trifling or abortive attempts compared with the present plan, which unites all *their* excellencies, and adds a splendour with which they were unacquainted. We ought not to mention this work without adding our warmest wishes for its complete success. It is a design worthy of a great and enlightened nation. Whether we consider this edition as the highest compliment to our first poet; a trophy, reared to the arts, by the co-operation of the ablest artists; or a testimony of what England can perform; it deserves the greatest encouragement; an encouragement which we are persuaded it will receive. Yet the greatest ardour will be required from the undertakers, since a scheme of such magnitude cannot be carried on without many and unexpected difficulties: on the other hand, the world, we will not say the kingdom, will be undoubtedly eager to co-operate with them; for the result will speak to every eye, in every language.

At this time, and on this subject, our introduction, we presume, will not be thought improper.—We must now pursue Mr. Reed in his improvements; but we find it impossible to consider each play distinctly, without making our articles not only numerous but extensive. As we have given a general account of the editor's plan, and his conduct, a few specimens of the notes, with some occasional remarks, must conclude our present examination.

While we were searching for new illustrations, we met with a passage which seems to have excited much attention, without reason. Escalus, in *Measure for Measure*, says,

‘ Well, heaven forgive him! and forgive us all!

Some rise by sin, and some by virtue fall,

Some run from *brakes of vice* and answer none,

And some condemned for a fault alone.’

The antithesis, evidently intended between the two last lines, prevents us from reading ‘brakes of ice.’ The difficulty only arises from the editor's not knowing that every thicket of thorns, furze, or any thorny vegetables, are called ‘brakes.’ The word is common in the West, and generally applied to

the remains of the wood, after furze is cut. Brake was a term originally applied to engines of torture, from break, as is properly observed in the notes; but it is applied also to an engine used by bakers to break their bread before it is baked, and from thence is now used in heraldry; some families bearing this engine for their arms. To run from brakes of vice, is evidently to escape from vices, dangerous on every side.

Perhaps we may be excused for mentioning another word.— ‘Coziers catches,’ in the Twelfth Night, certainly does not mean taylors or cottyers, as Mr. Whalley has properly remarked. He is right in the meaning, but not in the derivation: it is cordiers catches; and the term is not codger’s end, but cordiers end, pronounced nearly the same way, abridged from cordouanier, or cordwainer. Coblers were always noted for singing, though their more common music is of the religious kind. We come nearer to the sound, though probably not the meaning, in cozer or gossip, a word not uncommon in Suffex.

It is worth observing, that in Macbeth the text is altered, when the old reading is not only intelligible but superior to that which is substituted.

‘ — the merciless Macdonnel
 — from the Western Isles
 Of Kernes and Gallow-glasses is supplied;
 And Fortune on his damned *quarrel* smiling,
 Shewed like a rebel’s whore.’

The word in the folio is *quarry*; and it is a little remarkable, that the reading of an evident metaphor is endeavoured to be supported by the words of a plain historian, in an unadorned narrative. Mr. Malone, in an additional note, supports it by evidence equally exceptionable.

‘The reading proposed by Dr. Johnson, and his explanation of it, are strongly supported by a passage in our author’s King John:

“ — And put his *cause* and *quarrel*
 To the disposing of the cardinal.”

‘Again in this play of Macbeth:

“ — and the chance, of goodness,
 Be like our warranted *quarrel*.”

‘Here we have *warranted quarrel*, the exact opposite of *damned quarrel*, as the text is now regulated.

‘Lord Bacon, in his Essays, uses the word in the same sense: “Wives are young men’s mistresses, companions for middle-age, and old men’s nurses; so as a man may have a *quarrel* to marry, when he will.” Malone.’

If Holinshed must be introduced, in the same quotation *quarry* is found, which does not mean game only, but game collected in one place; and in this sense the passage has much force and beauty.

The

The following note, of which the part by Mr. Malone is now first added, is very ingenious. It is on that beautiful representation of Patience smiling at Grief, by Viola, in Twelfth Night.

‘ This celebrated image was not improbably first sketched out in the old play of Pericles. I think Shakspeare’s hand may be sometimes seen in the latter part of it, and there only:—two or three passages, which he was unwilling to lose, he has transplanted, with some alteration, into his own plays.

“ She sat like patience on a monument,

Smiling at grief.” —

‘ In Pericles: “ Thou (Mariana) dost look like patience gazing on king’s graves, and smiling extremity out of act.”

‘ Thus a little before, Mariana asks the bawd, “ Are you a woman?” Bawd. “ What would you have me to be, if not a woman?” — Somewhat similar to the dialogue between Iago and Othello, relative to Cassio:

“ I think that he is *honest*.

Men should be what they seem,

Or those that be not, would they might seem *none*.”

‘ Again, “ She starves the ears she feeds, (says Pericles), and makes them hungry, the more she gives them speech.”

‘ So in Hamlet:

“ As if *increase of appetite* had grown

By what it fed on.” Farmer.

‘ *She sat like patience on a monument smiling at grief.*] So in our author’s Rape of Lucrece:

“ So mild, that *Patience seem’d to scorn his woes*.”

‘ In the passage in the text, our author, I believe, meant to personify Grief as well as Patience; for we can scarcely understand “ at grief” to mean “ in grief:” as no statuary could, I imagine, form a countenance in which smiles and grief should be at once expressed. Perhaps Shakspeare borrowed his imagery from some ancient monument, on which these two figures were represented.

‘ The following lines in the Winter’s Tale seem to add some support to my interpretation:

“ I doubt not then, but Innocence shall make

Falſe Accuſation bluſh, and Tyranny

Tremble at Patience.”

‘ In King Lear, we again meet with the two personages introduced in the text:

‘ *Patience and Sorrow* strove

Who ſhould expreſs her goodlieſt.”

‘ Again, in Cymbeline, the ſame kind of imagery may be traced:

“ — nobly he yokes

A ſmiling with a ſigh

———— I do note

That *Grief* and *Patience*, rooted in him both,
Mingle their spurs together."

' I am aware that Homer's *δακρυθεν γελασσα*, and a passage in Macbeth—

" ————— My plenteous joys
Wanton in fullness, seek to hide themselves
In drops of sorrow—"

may be urged against what has been suggested; but it should be remembered, that in these instances it is *joy* which bursts into tears. There is no instance, I believe, either in poetry or real life, of *sorrow* smiling in anguish. In *pain* indeed the case is different; the suffering Indians having been known to smile in the midst of torture.—But, however this may be, sculpture and the painter are confined to one point of time, and cannot exhibit successive movements in the countenance.

' Dr. Percy, however, observes to me that *grief* may mean *grievance*, "in which sense it is used in Dr. Powell's History of Wales, 1584. 4to. p. 356. Of the wrongs and griefs done to the noblemen at Stratalyn, &c. In the original (printed at the end of Wynne's History of Wales, 8vo.) it is *graramina*, i. e. *grievances*."

' The word is certainly likewise used by our author in this sense in one of his historical plays, but not, I believe, in the singular number. Malone.'

In the same play is a curious quotation, selected by Mr. Reed, to illustrate Olivia's speech to Malvolio.

"Why dost thou smile so, and kiss thy hand so oft."

' This fantastic custom is taken notice of by Barnaby Riche, in *Faults and nothing but Faults*, 4to. circa 1606, p. 6. "But see here a companie now presenting themselves that I cannot say are affected, but I thinke are rather infected with too much courtesie, you shall know them by their salutations. For first with the *kiss on the hand*, the bodie shall be bowed down to the ground: then the armes shall be cast out like one that were dauncing the old antike, not a word but at your service, at your command, at your pleasure: this olde protestation *yours in the way of honestie*, is little cared for: everie gull was wont to have it at his tongue's end, but now it is forgotten. And these flowers of *courtesie*, as they are full of affectation, so are they no less formal in their speeches full of fustian phrases, many times delivering such sentences as doe bewray and lay open their master's ignorance: and they are so frequent *with the kisse on the hand*, that word shall not passe their mouthes, till they have clapt their fingers over their lippes." Editor.'

Another note, which now first occurs in this edition, is a curious illustration of ancient manners. The original of the term *curties* was to do your courtesies, to pay your compliments; and, in this form we have met with the phrase, though we have neglected to mark the authority.

‘ Curtfies there to me.] From this passage one might fufpect that the manner of paying refpect, which is now confined to females, was equally ufed by the other fex. It is probable, however, that the word curtly was employed to exprefs acts of civility and reverence by either men or women indifcriminately. In an extract from the Black Book of Warwick, Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica, p. 4, it is faid, “ The pulpett being fet at the nether end of the earle of Warwick’s tombe in the faid quier, the table was placed where the altar had bene. At the coming into the quier my lord made *low curtefie* to the French king’s armes, &c.”

‘ Again, in the Book of Kervynge and Sewinge, printed by Wynkyn de Worde, fign. A. 1111. “ And whan your foverayne is fet, loke your towell be about your necke, then make your foverayne curtefy, than uncover your brede and fet it by the falte, and laye your napkyn, knyfe, and fpone afore him, than kneel on your knee, &c.” Thefe directions are to male fervants. Editor.’

We might be thought to have extended our article too far in copying thefe elucidations, even though they illuftrated Shakspeare, one of the ‘ classics of an age which knew of none.’ We have juft hinted that they illuftrate ancient manners, but they do more; they point out the ftate of fociety, of fciences, and the more polished amufements of that time. The prefent age does not afford a more accomplished fwindler than young mafter Rafh, who is in jail ‘ for a commodity of brown paper, and old ginger, nine fcore and feventeen pounds, of which he made five marks ready money.’ The extremity of modern folly does not equal the thumb-rings, the filver fans, or the ciopin, that is, the fashionable fhoe, with heels fo high, that the lady, who wore them, was obliged to be fupported on each fide for fear of falling. But it would be endless to purfue this fubject very far: fimilar inftances muft occur to all our readers.—We fhall preferve the following note, becaufe we think it conveys fome information; yet if we attend to the context, we think the wheel means the burthen of the fong. After Ophelia had been finging in her phrenzy, Laertes fays,

‘ *La.* Hadft thou thy wits, and did perfuade revenge,
It could not move thus.

‘ *Oph.* You muft fing *down a-down, an you call him a-down-a.*
O, how the wheel becomes it?’

Mr. Malone, however, fays,

‘ I am inclined to think that *wheel* is here ufed in its ordinary fenfe, and that thefe words allude to the occupation of the girl who is fupposed to fing the fong quoted by Ophelia.—The following lines in Hall’s *Virgidemiarum*, 1597, appear to me to add fome fupport to this interpretation.

“ Some drunken rimer thinks his time well fpent,
If he can live to fee his name in print;

Who when he is once fleshed to the presse,
And sees his handselle have such faire successe,
Sung to the ~~wheel~~, and sung unto the payle,
He sends forth thraves of ballads to the sale."

Our author likewise furnishes an authority to the same purpose.
Twelfth Night, act ii. sc. 4:

" — Come, the song we had last night:—
The spinsters and the knitters in the sun
Do use to chaunt it."

' A musical antiquary may perhaps contend, that the controverted words of the text allude to an ancient instrument mentioned by Chaucer, and called by him a *rote*, by others a *vielle*; which was played upon by the friction of a wheel.

' It is likewise enumerated with other instruments in the old metrical romance, called, The Squire of low Degree. bl. l.

" There was mynth and melodye,
With harpe, getron, and sautry,
With note, ribible, and clokarde,
With pypes, organ, and bumbard." Malone.'

Shakspeare is particularly valuable for his preservation of old customs, since, at the æra in which he wrote, many of these, though then obsolete, were remembered from the phrases which referred to them, and which were employed in common conversation.

We have formerly remarked that the tragedy of Hamlet, though distinguished by the most beautiful passages, was, as a whole, incoherent and reprehensible. It must still appear in the same light to an unassisted enquirer; but the subject is greatly elucidated in this edition by extracts from the old history. It has been said, for instance, that his behaviour to Ophelia is inconsistent with the general character. It appears so harsh, so brutish, so unsuitable to

' The courtier's, soldier's, scholar's, eye, tongue, sword,
The expectancy and rose of the fair state,
The glass of fashion, and the mould of form,'

that, to avoid the contradiction, Shakspeare has been supposed to represent Hamlet as actually mad, or at least so much agitated, as at times to approach towards lunacy. Our poet had, however, the history of Hamlet in his eye, and was himself aware of one circumstance, of which he forgot to inform the spectators. We shall transcribe it from the note, which we wish had been inserted at the scene between Hamlet and Ophelia.

' They counselled to try and know if possible, how to discover the intent and meaning of the young prince; and they could find no better nor more fit invention to intrap him, than to set some fair and beautiful woman in secret place, that with
flatter-

flattering speeches, and all the craftiest meanes she could, should purposely seek to allure his mind to have his pleasure of her,—To this end certain courtiers were appointed to lead Hamlet into a solitary place within the woods, where they brought the woman, inciting him to take their pleasures together. And surely the poor prince at this assault had been in great danger, if a gentleman, that in Horvandille's time had been nourished with him had not shewne himself more affectioned to the bringing up he had received with Hamlet, than desirous to please the tyrant.—This gentleman bare the courtiers company, making full account that the least shewe of perfect sense and wisdom that Hamlet should make, would be sufficient to cause him to lose his life; and therefore by certain signes he gave Hamlet intelligence in what danger he was like to fall, if by any meanes he seemed to obaye, or once like the wanton toys and vicious provocations of the gentlewoman sent thither by his uncle; which much abashed the prince, as then wholly being in affection to the lady. But by her he was likewise informed of the treason, as one that from her infancy loved and favoured him.—The prince in this sort having deceived the courtiers and the lady's expectation, that affirmed and swore he never once offered to have his pleasure of the woman, although in subtilty he affirmed the contrary, every man thereupon assured themselves that without doubt he was distraught of his senses;—so that as then Fengon's practice took no effect.'

In another part of the play, Hamlet will not kill the king while at his devotions, lest he might send his soul to heaven. This is diabolical revenge. It is excused in the play, on the old principle of retaliation, which had taken fast hold of men's minds, and obscured the dictates of common humanity. This is the best excuse probably that can be assigned; yet, in this edition, we find another instance of the same infernal malice.

'I think it not improbable that when Shakspeare put this horrid sentiment into the mouth of Hamlet, he might have recollected the following story: "One of these monsters meeting his enemy unarmed, threatened to kill him if he denied not God, his power, and essential properties, viz. his mercy, suffrance, &c. the which, when the other desiring life pronounced with great horror, kneeling upon his knees: the bravo cried out, now will I kill thy body and soule, and at that instant thrust him through with his rapier." Brief Discourse of the Spanish State, with a Dialogue annexed, intitled Philobasilis. 4to. 1590, p. 21. Editor.'

We must not conclude our review of this edition without a little farther notice of the various contributors to it. Independent of the former notes we have already observed, that those contained in Mr. Malone's Supplement are inserted in

their proper places. Mr. Malone's own notes are very valuable, and his corrections from the folios highly useful. The late Dr. Blackstone's notes are so clear, explicit, and satisfactory, they display such varied knowledge, and are so eminently distinguished for their explanation of those customs which are connected with the statute-law, that they add greatly to the value of this edition. While the tenth volume lies open before us, we shall transcribe one very useful note relating to Hamlet.

‘ I agree with Mr. Steevens, that the Crown of Denmark (as in most of the Gothic kingdoms) was elective, and not hereditary; though it might be customary, in elections, to pay some attention to the royal blood, which by degrees produced hereditary succession. Why then do the rest of the commentators so often treat Claudius as an usurper, who had deprived young Hamlet of his right by heirship to his father's crown? Hamlet calls him drunkard, murderer, and villain; one who had carried the election by low and mean practices; had

“ Popt in between the election and my hopes — ”
had

“ From a shelf the precious diadem stole,
And put it in his pocket : ”

but never hints at his being an usurper. His discontent arose from his uncle's being preferred before him, not from any legal right which he pretended to set up to the crown. Some regard was probably had to the recommendation of the preceding prince, in electing the successor. And, therefore, young Hamlet had “ the voice of the king himself for his succession in Denmark ; ” and he at his own death prophesies that “ the election would light on Fortinbras, who had his dying voice, ” conceiving that by the death of his uncle, he himself had been king for an instant, and had therefore a right to recommend. When in the fourth act, the rabble wished to choose Laertes king, I understood that antiquity was forgot, and custom violated, by electing a new king in the life-time of the old one, and perhaps also by the calling in a stranger to the royal blood. Blackstone.

Mr. Steevens and sir Joshua Reynolds have also added to their former notes; and they have, as usual, greatly contributed to our instruction. Mr. Henderson, whose name frequently occurs, has chiefly elucidated Shakspeare by quotations from authors of the sixteenth century; but we have already observed, that we have not remarked any explanations peculiarly happy, or any quotations very pointed and apposite. The author of the ‘ Remarks on the last Edition of Shakspeare, ’ has occurred in our usual course; and we have already assigned to him his proper rank. Mr. Monck Mason also contributes his share to these notes. We would not overlook his labours,
left

lest it might be attributed to former differences in opinion. He is a careful and attentive commentator. In some instances he appears, like Dr. Warburton, too refined; but he is neither deficient in diligence, attention, or sagacity. His best remarks appear to us to be those on Lear. We shall select one where the subject is well elucidated by quotations. Edmund observes,

“ — Hardly shall *I* carry out my side,
Her (Goneril's) husband being alive.”

‘ That is, “ I shall scarcely be able to make out my game.” The allusion is to a party at cards, and he is afraid that he shall not be able to make his side successful.

‘ So, in Ben Johnson's *Silent Woman*, Centaure says of Epicene :

“ She and Mavis will set up a side.”

That is, will be partners. And in Massinger's *Unnatural Combat*, Belgard says :

“ — — — and if now

At this downright game, I may but hold your cards,
I'll not pull down the side.”

In the *Maid's Tragedy* the same expression occurs :

“ *Dula*. I'll hold your cards against any two I know.

Evad. Aspasia takes her part.

Dula. I will refuse it ;

She will pluck down a side, she does not use it,”

But the phrase is more clearly explained in Massinger's *Great Duke of Florence*, where Cozemo says to Petronella, who had challenged him to drink a second bowl of wine :

“ Pray you, pause a little,

If I hold your cards, I shall pull down the side ;

I am not good at the game.” Monck Mason.”

To the editor we have already paid our tribute of applause; and those contributors whom we have omitted are not neglected from disrespect, but from the impossibility of mentioning every one, or giving any character of those who have furnished but little. On the whole, we think this edition very valuable, and greatly superior to every one which has preceded it.

The Anatomy of the Absorbing Vessels of the Human Body. By William Cruikshank. 4to. 12s. in Boards. Nicol.

IT is somewhat remarkable that a discovery in anatomy, of no less practical importance than that of the circulation of the blood, should not have been illustrated and explained in distinct publications. We may say, without offence, that to have discovered the absorbing vessels, and to have ascertained their distinct and separate offices, is the claim of *Britain*; yet,
if

if we except some essays in Dr. Hunter's Medical Commentaries, Dr. Monro's first publication at Berlin, and Mr. Hewson's short account in the Experimental Enquiries, we have yet received little information on the subject. We mean not to neglect Mr. Sheldon; but he has not yet exceeded the limits of what was formerly known, and has been frequently described. The lymphatic system, in its stricter meaning, will be the subject of his succeeding volumes. Dr. Hunter, we find, always intended to have published a particular account of the lymphatics; and, when we recollect with what elegance and accuracy he has illustrated the only subject which he has explained by plates, the gravid uterus, we must regret that he did not accomplish his design. If Mr. Sheldon proceeds with the same precision and elegance which distinguish his first engravings, we shall have sustained little loss. Mr. Cruikshank does not endeavour to attract attention in this way, yet the three plates with which this volume is illustrated, are executed with no little care.

In this work Mr. Cruikshank gives not only a history of the discovery, but he traces the doubtful hints, and uncertain language of former anatomists, who sometimes saw what they did not fully comprehend. A slight attention, and in attention the ancients were by no means deficient, would have shown that effused fluids disappear, and were in reality absorbed. The organs, for this purpose, they supposed were the red veins; and indeed the arguments were so striking, and seemingly so conclusive, that the earlier supporters of distinct absorbent vessels were almost compelled by the force of evidence to allow that red veins sometimes absorbed, or that lymphatics terminated very soon in these vessels, without passing the tedious circuit of the thoracic duct. More careful enquiries have at last demonstrated, that the arguments which seemed so strong are really fallacious; and it appears now to be well established, that the absorbents, as a system, are independent of the veins, till their united contents pass slowly into the subclavian. In this whole enquiry, Mr. Cruikshank examines the sentiments and experiments of different authors, with precision and candour. He appears well acquainted with what others have said, and capable of deciding on intricate subjects of this kind.

After having shown how to discover the lymphatics, he describes their coats, their valves, the glandular bodies which they pass through, their ramifications, anastomoses, number, and size. The coats, he thinks, are irritable and muscular; and the fluids are propelled by their contractions, while the valves prevent any regurgitation. Whatever be the power, while

while the body is in health, fluids circulate through them with great rapidity.

Anatomists have differed in describing the structure of the lymphatic glands. While experiments were uncertain and contradictory, we thought that reasoning might be allowed to assist them; and when we perceived the great caution with which nature endeavours, in animal bodies, to prevent any substance that may be injurious from mixing with the general mass; while many bodies, apparently mild, are found to be highly so, we were led to consider the glands as receptacles for the new nourishment, in which it is to be mixed and blended with fluids already animalized, previous to its admission into the red veins. This was supported by finding the vessels which brought the fluids to the gland minutely divided, as if it were to distribute the new supplies to their several cells; and the vessels that carry them away equally minute, seemingly for the same reason. But there was this essential difference: the *vasa efferentia* soon joined to make larger vessels than those which entered the gland; and the vessels united into larger trunks the nearer they were to the thoracic duct. So far went reason: let us now attend to experience.

From what has been said, it will appear, that it is no easy matter to unravel the structure of the lymphatic glands. I shall faithfully relate what has occurred to me, having been very much occupied in injecting these glands with quicksilver. If the glands are completely injected with quicksilver, and then examined in the microscope, it is certainly true, as professor Mekel has observed, that nothing but convolutions of lymphatic vessels are to be seen in many instances; but it is as true, that after the most successful injections of these glands, the cells have been seen perfectly distinct. I have injected many glands, where there was not the least appearance of a convoluted vessel, and where the radiated branches of the *inferens* and *efferens*, with intermediate cells only, were to be found; but I never injected a lymphatic gland, where I did not see some cells, particularly if I was attentive to the mercury just as it entered the gland. Accordingly, one of the best methods of shewing these cells, is stopping the injection after the gland is half filled; the cells are then exceedingly evident. But if the injection goes on, the cells are covered over with ramifications of finer vessels, entering those cells, and injected contrary to the valves. I have injected these into the surrounding cellular membrane itself, in the human subject. In quadrupeds it is very easy to demonstrate the cellular structure: both in asses and horses the glands on the mesentery are most distinctly cellular, as will be seen in the annexed engravings. In the former, the cells are distinct, without any other dissection or preparation of the glands than merely injection; but in horses it is necessary to
dry

dry them, and afterwards lay them open; the cells then appear like those of a honey-comb, and bristles may be passed from one set into another, by lateral perforations, as is seen in the plates. When there is but one vas inferens and one efferens, there is but one set of cells; but when there are many, each appear to have their proper cells; and these cannot be injected from the other cells, but only by their own inferentia.

‘ It has been alleged by some, that cutting into a lymphatic gland, and observing the appearance of cells, is no proof that it is actually so. In this way the vesiculæ feminales appear cellular; and yet Haller proved, by maceration and dissection of the cellular membrane only, that they could be drawn out into the form of small intestines, or straight tubes; and that it was convolution only, and connection of cellular membrane, which made them put on this appearance. Now, say they, may not the lymphatic glands appear cellular, and yet really be convolutions of vessels? In the first place, it is not possible to do the same thing with these convolutions, supposing them to be such, as Haller has done with the vesiculæ feminales. In the next place, though I allow that even in the lymphatic glands of the horse, which are here exhibited engraved, there is something of the appearance of a twisted vessel in the outside view, yet it can never be supposed to be the entering vessel which is thus convoluted, as its diameter is fifty times that of the radiated extremities of the inferens. Again, no convolution of vessel only can ever account for the lateral communication of some cells, and there being no connection between others.’

Our author's observations on the ramifications of lymphatics, and the termination of this system in the jugular and subclavian veins, are very correct and ingenious. We defer enlarging on these subjects only on account of their making our article too extensive.

Of the origin of the lacteals we have not spoken in the proper order, because the subject is in some degree connected with their offices. We have explained Lieberkuhn's opinion in our Fifty-fifth Volume, p. 103. That author's ampullula, the vesicle, mentioned in our article, and the spongy body, in the following extract, relate to the same appearance. Mr. Cruikshank's observations are comprised under the subsequent heads.

‘ 1. Many of the villi were so full of chyle, that I saw nothing of the ramifications of the arteries or veins; the whole appeared as one white vesicle, without any red lines, pores, or orifices whatever.

‘ 2. Others of the villi contained chyle, but in a small proportion; and the ramifications of the veins were numerous, and prevailed, by their redness, over the white of their villi.

‘ 3. In

‘ 3. In some hundred villi, I saw a trunk of a lacteal, forming or beginning by radiated branches. The orifices of these radii were very distinct on the surface of the villus, as well as the radii themselves, seen through the external surface, passing into the trunk of the lacteal: they were full of a white fluid. There was but one of these trunks in each villus.

‘ 4. The spongy cavity, which Leiberkuhn speaks of, appeared clearly to be the common cellular membrane, connecting all the arteries, veins, nerves, and lacteals together.

‘ 5. The orifices on the villi of the jejunum, as Dr. Hunter himself said (when I asked him, as he viewed them in the microscope, how many he thought there might be) were about fifteen or twenty on each villus; and in some I saw them still more numerous. I have, on a former occasion, described these orifices as appearing in a bulbous extremity of the lacteal; but repeated examinations of the villi, under similar circumstances, have now taught me the real structure of their orifices and primary branches. They arise out of the lymphatic glands exactly in the same way, that is, by small orifices belonging to radiated branches, which presently unite to form one vessel. Every effort I have made to detect the orifices of the lymphatics, has hitherto been ineffectual. I have looked for them on the villi of the lips, villi of the toes and fingers; but we have not there the opportunity of finding them filled with a white fluid, as in the intestines. This circumstance, however, when it is considered that lacteals and lymphatics are the same vessels, is probably of no consequence. There may be some little variety, but the orifices and beginnings we may consider, from so great analogy in other respects, as very much resembling each other.’

Mr. Cruikshank does not suppose that these vessels act in absorbing, on the principle of capillary tubes, because *their* action is necessary, uniform, and constant; while lacteals may be immersed in chyle, and lymphatics in serum, without any absorption taking place. From the observations which we have just selected, we think this subject may be easily explained. The apparatus of an artery, a vein, and a nerve, seems to show that the vessel must be in different states, depending on the condition of the vital and animal powers. From what we perceive in the villi of the tongue, it is probable, that the extremity of the lacteal must be raised, to perform its office; and we shall want few arguments to show that, if the lacteals act by capillary attraction, it cannot be in the state of pendulous vessels. Each lacteal must be erected for that purpose, its orifice must be expanded, and all this will depend on the state of the animal œconomy; so that the action cannot be constant and indiscriminate. We shall allow that there is a power of selection in the lymphatics. If the body is immersed in salt-water,

water, the aqueous particles will be absorbed, and the salt excluded: some poisons are also innocent by being taken into the stomach. We cannot well explain these subjects, but they are as consistent with capillary attraction as with any other hypothesis, except that of an intelligent power residing in these orifices. In the case of salt-water, we may lean so far towards the corpuscular philosophy as to suppose the particles of salt too large to pass through the orifices of the lymphatics, though they undoubtedly are admitted, when in a very dilute state, through the lacteals. Other bodies, we may suppose, produce a strong contraction in their mouths by excess of stimulus, or may render the nerve inactive by a contrary power. We have not a single proof that bark, in the finest substance, or opium unchanged, enters the blood-vessels. Though very stimulating substances are sometimes absorbed, it is only after they have been at least diluted, probably changed in the stomach.

Mr. Cruikshank feels a difficulty in explaining how solids are absorbed. We cannot assist him; but we suspect that, in the greater number of instances, it is *dead-solid* matter that is taken up, and we can then easily suppose it gradually dissolved, while the parts in solution are continually absorbed. We know that there is a constant regular circulation of the substance of the solids; but, as new matter is necessarily deposited in a fluid form, a menstruum is provided for that which is to be absorbed.

Our author's observations on dropsies are particularly valuable, but they are too long to be inserted. We shall select a short passage, which is clear, and we believe correct, as it relates to the depositions *laiteux*, mentioned in one of our foreign articles, and elucidates that subject.

‘After a woman has lain-in some days, she is sometimes taken with shivering, and other symptoms of fever; her milk disappears, the fever goes on, and she dies. On opening the body, the cavity of the abdomen has on such occasions been found full of a whey-coloured fluid mixed with laminæ of coagulated white matter. The fever, by many, has in this case been attributed to the absorption of the milk from the breast, and its being carried into the blood-vessels; believing the appearances they saw in the abdomen to be from the milk, they have given it the name of *dépôt du lait*. I do not contend that the milk, in this case, is not absorbed; but I believe that milk would do no mischief in the blood-vessels. The appearances in the abdomen are peculiar to the peritoneal inflammation, and would have taken place if the patient had been a male instead of a female. The whey-coloured fluid is the fluid of

of surfaces increased in quantity, and mixed with pus; and the curdled matter is the coagulable lymph very constantly found on inflamed surfaces.'

The Second Part contains a description of the lymphatic glands, and the distribution of the lymphatics in different parts. The author informs us that it is essentially the same as has been read during the last twelve years in Windmill-street; the additions are chiefly the varieties which occurred in the dissections of different bodies. The descriptions are sometimes illustrated with cases, where the organs mentioned were diseased. Our author has discovered no glands in the brain. The pituitary gland consists according to his observations, of a cortical and medullary part: it seems to resemble the rest of the brain, and, in no respect, the glands of the absorbents. He does not, however, deny the existence of lymphatics in the brain. In the mesocolon, the glands are few and small, which leads Mr. Cruikshank to suspect that some change is produced in the chyle during its retention in these organs. It adds strongly to the force of the opinion which we have suggested, since the fluids in that portion of the intestine must be sufficiently animalized to require no farther dilution. Our author never knew persons supported by clysters longer than three weeks.

The particular distribution of the absorbents affords little that we can extract. Our author has seen them on the heart, in the pancreas, and some other parts, in which they have not been yet described, in the human body. He denies that there are lacteals in the stomach. There are undoubtedly absorbents; but as chyle seems to be formed by the secreted fluids in the duodenum, the dispute is almost about words. The relief on taking food, when much exhausted, may undoubtedly arise, in a great degree, from the stimulus on the nerves of the stomach; it is equally certain, that something either of the fluids taken in, already animalized, or even of a watery nature, is also absorbed. The feelings of nurses, who eat after they have been exhausted by the sucking of a strong child, or even when they only drink; the feelings of every one in the same situation, in consequence of fatigue, seem to support this opinion.

In the lymphatics of the lungs, our author tells us that there are valves; the injection runs in different directions, in consequence of the frequent anastomoses. He has known pulmonary consumption produced by breathing putrid air; and he seems to think that this disease may be infectious. It is not easy to prove negatives; but, if the facts were well founded, they

they would have long since been established on indubitable evidence. We have known putrid air produce cachexy and fever; we have never known it produce a pulmonary complaint. Our author's remarks on the absorbents of the brain we shall select.

' There is the appearance of absorbents on the surface of the brain, between the tunica arachnoides and pia mater. Ruysch was the first who observed this; he has given an engraving of them, inflated with air, and calls them *vasa pseudo lymphatica*. I have repeatedly injected them with quicksilver; but, as they appear to me to be destitute of valves, the great characteristic of absorbent vessels, and as I have not yet traced them to the glands, I have not yet determined what they are. They may be absorbents without valves, as the fluids, coming from the brain, have the assistance of their own gravity in descending, and the valves would have been of no use in vessels not exposed to the contraction of surrounding muscles.—That the brain has absorbents, I am perfectly certain; for I have seen absorbent glands in the foramen caroticum, which, from this situation, could not belong to any vessels but such as were coming down from the brain. From these glands the deep-seated absorbents of the head go into other glands, in the course of the internal jugular veins and carotid arteries; and, having been joined by those from the outside of the head, they form larger and larger trunks as they come nearer the angle between the jugular and subclavian veins, and are blended with the absorbents of the neck.'

Of the thoracic duct our author gives a very particular description. The valves at its termination, he thinks, occasionally oppose the retrograde motion of the blood through it from the subclavian; while, in general, the force of the lymph is greater than that of the blood in the veins. This is partly true; though our author does not make allowance for the direction of the course of the fluids. The blood in the veins descends by its gravity, and, like all descending bodies, presses forward in a strait line. The lymph, from the curve of the terminating branches of the duct, acquires nearly the same direction; besides, the lymph has received an impulse from the action of the heart and aorta: the force of the heart was long before lost in the convoluted vessels of the head; so that the motion of the blood in the subclavian vein receives little assistance from it.

We cannot leave Mr. Cruikshank without our sincere commendations of his very accurate and useful work, which will be a lasting monument of his skill, address, and attention.

Two Discourses delivered at Public Meetings of the Royal Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres, at Berlin, in the Years 1785, and 1786. I. On the Population of States in general, and that of the Prussian Dominions in particular. II. On the True Riches of States and Nations, the Balance of Commerce, and that of Power. By the Baron de Hertzberg. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Dilly.

WE have lately viewed with astonishment the decline of an excentric planet, which has assumed various and uncommon appearances, has been the harbinger of violent commotions, rode in a whirlwind, and directed the storm, yet has at last set in peace, and left, in its west, a mild, but steady and attractive radiance. We speak of the late king of Prussia, whom posterity will look up to with wonder, and who only appeared of less importance, because he was not beheld at a greater distance. His vigorous and comprehensive mind could grasp the most remote, and combine the most improbable events, while it could pursue the dull routine of office, and the more minute detail of political œconomy. A genius which could at times shine with such brilliancy, can seldom look so near as to comprehend little objects. The event was as might be expected, when we add, that, with abilities so enterprising, a mind so clear, and a comprehension so intuitive, a series of the most fortunate accidents, a concurrence of the most unexpected circumstances, were combined. Few kings were ever so able, and none, equally able, were so fortunate as Frederick. The historian may find his parallel as a warrior; may compare him with men of equal ingenuity and wit; with statesmen of equal penetration and steadiness; but they will search in vain for an union of these qualities, in a degree which will bring the object of their panegyric near to Frederick. But it is not our present business to write an eulogium; if it were, we should imitate the address of our author, who, in the king of Prussia's capital, in an academy fostered and supported by him, scarcely says a word but what his sovereign might have heard without a blush. We would not, however, be understood to shade his faults by the dazzling lustre of his virtues: he had great ones; but they belong to him as a man, and we have spoken of him as a king. Peace to his manes! May future princes equal him as the father of his people, and rise above him as the father of a family!

The baron de Hertzberg, minister of state, and the first object of the new king's munificence, as a member of the academy of Berlin, pronounced, on the late king's birth day, Discourses on Political Œconomy, particularly relating to Prussia. From these Discourses we have collected much curious infor-

mation ; but the two before us have only appeared in an English dress ; and to these our present account must be confined. The first is on the Population of States in general, and that of Prussia in particular. The baron appears, in these discussions, to be an able politician, an enlightened historian, and a clear, intelligent philosopher. His essays are cool and dispassionate, without affected refinement of sentiment, a misplaced brilliancy of thought, or an unsuitable ornament of language. We may add, that his translator has executed *his* office with propriety and judgment.

On the subject of population in general, our author agrees with Montesquieu, in thinking the world less populous at present than in ancient times, but does not suppose the difference to be so great as that writer has alleged. We think some considerations, which baron Hertzberg has omitted, would still farther lessen that disproportion.

The measures which the king of Prussia has adopted to increase the population of his kingdom are judicious, spirited, and decisive : they have been consequently successful. The population of his hereditary dominions has been doubled ; and, by the increase of his territories, it has been trebled. All this has been effected in spite of the long and bloody wars in which he has been engaged. The means by which it has been effected are : the encouragement of agriculture ; draining marshes ; building farms and villages ; receiving industrious refugees, and assisting the poor with money on the most advantageous conditions ; alienating his own demesnes ; purchasing rights of common, in order to inclose and render them more generally useful ; and laying up magazines, to prevent the bad consequences of failing crops, which, in a country so poor as Prussia, would be fatal to a population, stretched, in this manner, seemingly to its utmost bent. Though these methods be the best foundation for a numerous population, yet the king did not neglect manufactures : we see in the list of expences allowed from the king's purse, among other things, *machines* for the Manchester manufacture. He encourages manufacturers by rewards, by bounties, by lending advantageous capitals, by removing the burthen of the soldiery from the poorest and most industrious spots. The Prussians, at this moment, clothe their own common people, and export many coarse woollens : their silk manufactures are very flourishing : their linens are a great source of external wealth ; and in the last year, we saw the number of Prussian vessels that passed the Sound to be not much less numerous than the Dutch and the English. Even the army is not detrimental to population. Its constitution is now known to be, in a great degree,

degree, a national militia; for the fixed garrisons are chiefly composed of foreigners. Frederick was first able to make an army of 200,000 men actually useful to the kingdom that maintains them. The baron does not assert so much, but he does more; he gives us facts, by which we think it may be easily proved. On the whole, the population of Prussia is estimated at six million, or 1667 persons to each square mile. France, our author observes, has 2500; the Austrian monarchy *should have* 1900; England and Ireland 1800; Spain 1200; Poland 700; Denmark 210; Sweden 117; Russia only 80. What would be the power of this unwieldy kingdom, if her inhabitants could be brought within a space adapted for their general exertion? The population of Prussia is, however, said to be so unequal, that some provinces have 3100 people on each square mile.

In the second Discourse the baron begins with depreciating an affectation of secrecy, the conduct of little minds, or of those who fear the light. This disregard of narrow policy is a noble principle, worthy of the enlightened minister of an able sovereign. He then proceeds to his real subject, viz. to ascertain the *true* riches of a nation, the balance of commerce and of power. The power of a state consists in that degree of population which we have just described; and the basis of that population is agriculture, industry, and commerce. The state of agriculture and commerce best adapted to this full, but nervous and active population, has not been properly ascertained in all its branches; but as the baron Hertzberg does not lead us to these researches, we must wait for another opportunity of explaining this subject.

The balance of commerce influences that of power. The baron gives a short and comprehensive history of the latter subject, which we cannot abridge. In this history, when our author approaches modern times, he talks like a dexterous politician. 'The king, he says, obtained the duchy of Silesia in consequence of a *particular claim, grounded on lawful titles.*' Again,

'The Poles having given occasion by a civil war to three neighbouring powers, to make good certain claims which they had upon some provinces of Poland, the partition of those provinces was made in 1772, according to the principles of a balance of power, of which the three potentates were to agree among themselves.'

The following passage affords us some new light.

'The war which broke out in 1776, between Great Britain and the colonies of North America, gave occasion to the court of France to declare for those colonies, and to afford them

assistance; chiefly with a view of preventing the English nation from subjugating the colonies, that they might not obtain, by the dominion of the sea, too great a balance in maritime commerce. This system fortunately prevailed by the peace concluded at Versailles, and by the independence that the American colonies thereby obtained. No observer of modern politics can be insensible, that there exists at present, or at least that there is an endeavour to establish and to preserve, the balance of maritime power; which results from the rivalry between France and England, and which appeared to be even from the time that the republic of Holland ranged itself on the side of France. The system of armed maritime neutrality may contribute to this, when it shall be generally acknowledged and established. The king has the merit of being the first author and supporter of the maritime neutrality, having maintained it against England, in the war which was concluded by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.'

When the author has spoken of the design of exchanging the sovereignty of Bavaria for the Low Countries, he adds:

' Nevertheless, those alarms and apprehensions, which the mention only of such an idea could not fail to excite, gave rise to that constitutional association, which was concluded at Berlin, on the 23d of July, in the preceding year, between the electors of Saxony, Brandenburg, and Brunswick; and which, in renewing the ancient connections of those illustrious contracting houses, is only defensive, and has no other end but the preservation of the constitutional system of the German empire, and the possessions and the rights of all its members. The king having made this association known, by public declarations addressed to the courts of Europe and of the empire, it has been applauded by most of the foreign courts; and many of the most considerable princes of Germany have been forward to join in it.——

' The past year then will be ever memorable in the annals of Europe, of Germany, and of Prussia; and though to us Prussians it must afford a more pure joy, yet, in all the nations of Europe, those, who are capable of sentiment, must acknowledge with us, that the king hath rendered the most essential service to humanity, to all Europe, and especially to our country of Germany, by establishing its general repose, its balance, and its security, and by dissipating its alarms, errors, and misunderstandings, without war, and without the effusion of blood, only by the pacific arms of representation and of explanation, by foresight, wisdom, and firmness; and by the completion of a great work, which will immortalize his name more than his numerous victories, which will render it precious to posterity, and which will secure to him a crown of civic and unperishable laurels. It will also reflect additional glory on him if it be considered, that this great work was first conceived, promoted, and

and completed by the king himself; that he undertook the dangerous part which was the result of it, in the seventy-fourth year of his age, and when his health was impaired by a reign so long and active as his has been; that in the same year he took a part not less active in the other general affairs of Europe, and especially in the very intricate affairs of Holland, adopting every possible measure for re-establishing union, confidence, and internal peace in that neighbouring and friendly republic; that he engaged in a transaction with the city of Danzick which was more than generous, and behaved with his usual firmness and moderation in the contests respecting that unquiet city; that he also ended a new dispute concerning limits with the republic of Poland, in a manner that was satisfactory to all parties. In the midst of all these great occupations, he did not omit, in the months of May, June, and August, the ordinary reviews of his army, and his military and æconomical journies into the greater part of his provinces; and taking occasion to exhibit the most brilliant spectacles, the most agreeable and instructive to the first military nobility of the different nations of Europe, who came in great numbers to be present at them, and in which we saw together the most illustrious warriors, who have fought of late years on the one side and on the other, upon the continent and in the seas of America.

We could not resist the desire we had to insert this information from a source so respectable, from one who must have known so well, and whose bias, where he may be supposed to deviate from the strict line of impartiality, can be so easily seen and allowed for. Yet, with an army so large, with distant negotiations from a country never remarkable for fertility, the king employed, in the year 1785, above three millions of crowns in public works for the advantage of the nation.

The baron then reviews the essentials necessary for the prosperity of a state. He expatiates on the population and the agriculture of Prussia; on the industry of the Prussians; on their manufactures and their commerce. We have seen that their power is great; their extraordinary exertions were soon recruited; and the destructive wounds of a long and extensive war were quickly healed, almost without a scar. The baron has explained the foundation of this constitutional vigour which rises by depression, that elastic spring which recovers its tone without a diminution of power. He congratulates the Prussians, with reason, on their situation; and his lessons may be practised by other states with advantage: the greatest should not be above acquiring this useful knowledge from a rising kingdom.

*Sermons by J. N. Puddicombe, M. A. Fellow of Dulwich-College ;
Late of Pembroke-Hall, Cambridge. 8vo. 6s. Cadell.*

IN enlarging, in a late article, on the species of eloquence adapted for the pulpit, we remarked that the style frequently crept on with so much uniformity as not to excite the attention, and with so little fervour, that the preacher was not always animated by his own ideas. This is not a species of eloquence of the milder kind, though not very different in effect. The style is polished ; but its beauty is without energy, and consists in splendid prettiness, without a manly dignity of thought or of expression. It plays about the heart without affecting the judgment. The first Sermon is on the Lamentation of Jesus over Jerusalem. The design of the discourse is to apply our Saviour's pathetic complaint to this kingdom ; to convert it into a remonstrance against the vices of a nation which has received mercies scarcely less signal than those with which Jerusalem was distinguished. The conclusion is in our author's best manner, and we shall consequently insert it.

‘ And thou, O Son of God, deign the efficacious concurrence of thy grace with our sincere though feeble efforts to resemble thee in every circumstance of conduct. How amiable an example of tender sympathy hast thou given us in thy concern for that obstinate and devoted city, Jerusalem ! How admirably dost thou enforce thy precepts by thy own practice ? Bless them that curse you, pray for those that despitefully use you. Didst thou weep for thy inveterate and implacable adversaries, when thou couldest not but know that in requital of thy goodness they would unite at a future period with all the virulence of barbarous and insatiable rancour in one general cry, crucify him, crucify him ? Dost thou, the Lord and Sovereign of the universe, do this for thy vassal creatures ? and shall not we have compassion upon our fellow-creatures ? Yes, surely, if we hope that thou wilt have pity on us. Oh, eradicate what is selfish in our natures, and soften what is obdurate ! inform our bosoms with an emanation of that never-failing benevolence which was extended equally to all, and diffused blessings with impartial distribution to foe as well as friend. Teach us not only to rejoice with them that rejoice, but to weep with them that weep, and at least to sympathize with the wretched if it is not in our power to relieve them. Fain would we, O divine Philanthropist, catch a spark of that celestial flame which glowed with such beneficial ardour in thy breast, while on earth. Enable us in some measure to emulate that pattern of sublime perfection which thou hast left us, and give us to know the things which belong to our peace before they are hid from our eyes for ever.’

The Sermons are fourteen in number, and the subjects are exceedingly miscellaneous. Too many are taken from the Re-

Revelations, a book which should be touched with a cautious hand; but Mr. Puddicombe seems to have selected the several passages which are at the head of each discourse, to enable him to exercise his descriptive powers, with the full luxuriance of a youthful imagination. In fact, these Sermons are of a descriptive kind; the feelings of a good man at the hour of death; the horrors of the wicked; the advantages of a life of temperance and sobriety; the pernicious tendency of the opposite conduct; the brilliant scenes in the vision of St. John, in which the phrases 'chastised and blended,' occur a little too often: the various scenes of our Saviour's life are pictured in glowing, sometimes in glaring colours. The author means to affect the heart; and, if his descriptive talents are aided by a happy elocution, we believe that he may succeed. A slight reflection would, however, have told him, that in the closet he would be scrutinized with a severer eye; that the tinsel of language would not be permitted to hide what is trifling, empty, or misplaced. Though we felt a little of this disgust, we must guard against its effect. Mr. Puddicombe's language is often elegant, and always neat; his imagination vivid, and his mind well-informed. A little flattery has probably urged him too soon on the world; but as he has begun with dazzling like a comet, he will continue, we hope, to enlighten us with the more sober, the 'blended and chastised' light of a planet. What we now think of his Sermons will, we have little doubt, be his own future opinion.

Remarks on the Means of obviating the fatal Effects of the Bite of a Mad Dog, or other rabid Animal; with Observations on the Method of Cure when Hydrophobia occurs; and the Opinion relative to worming of Dogs refuted. Illustrated by Examples. By R. Hamilton, M. D. 8vo. 4s. 3d. in Boards. Longman.

IT is not in England only that great attention has been paid to the effects of a poison, not often infused, or in every case powerful enough to induce the complaint, but which produces a disease always horrible in its appearance, and almost always fatal. In our country, the attention of physicians has lately been directed towards it, from its fatal effects on a son of admiral Rowley, whose case was conducted by the ablest practitioners, and who used the most approved medicines. In France, we believe about the end of the year 1781, several instances of the disease induced the Royal Medical Society to propose the subject of hydrophobia for one of their prize-questions. Either contesting for the prize, or from more benevolent purposes, a great number of memoirs were sent, containing many well

authenticated facts. They appeared of so much importance that the memoir which carried away the first and second prizes were published entire, with the substance of many additional ones*. They fill a quarto volume, containing five hundred and eighty-two pages; and part of the sum allotted for the premium has been generously expended to lessen its price, which is only three shillings and nine pence sterling at Paris. We have mentioned this volume, because Dr. Hamilton seems not to be acquainted with it, and to recommend it to his attention. We must now pursue the remarks which are more immediately our object.

The design of Dr. Hamilton is to enforce the practice of the only method of prevention which will be certainly effectual, viz. cutting out the bitten part. With this view, he points out the fallacy of those specifics which have been so much depended on. We will beg leave to speak in favour of two, viz. cold bathing and mercury. For the former, we require only our author's own evidence. After he has endeavoured to show that the action of the cold bath can neither destroy or wash the poison out of the system, he inserts, in a distant part of the work, the following passage.

'Some, we must observe, from a peculiarity of constitution, never are affected with hydrophobia, though really bit by a rabid animal. Or the body may happen to be in such a state at the time of the bite, that it becomes able to resist the powers of the poison. We know, that for the reception of several of those poisons that produce disease, especially the class of fevers from infection, when the body is predisposed for their reception, they become more readily infectious, and the more readily exert their force. If the body be in a more tonic state, and not thus predisposed by any debilitating causes, rendering it more than commonly irritable, the poison seldomer takes effect. And hence it comes to pass, that the same poisons of the same strength, acting chiefly upon the nervous system, shall produce, or not produce their peculiar effects, according to the state of the body at the time of the reception.'

In this way only was the cold bath supposed to act by every rational physician; and the same reason should induce the practitioner to give his patient the most flattering hopes, and to cheer his mind by the most pleasing prospects. It is a fact, that probably not one of ten, bitten in equal circumstances, by a mad dog, really have the disease; and it is a fact equally certain, that not one of fifty dogs, supposed to be rabid, really are so.

* It is the supplement for the volume of the year 1783, though at that time the volume for 1780 was but just published.

There is another circumstance which will lessen the terrors of those who have been bitten. There is no fact in the records of medicine better established, than that the poison does not lie dormant, ready to produce the disease at any distant future period. We know of no instance where a disease, incontestibly hydrophobic, occurred beyond a year after the bite. We were once induced to enquire minutely into this circumstance, and our collections lie before us: we shall transcribe them, as they may be of service, and we shall do it with more pleasure, because our opinion is supported by Dr. Hamilton.

‘ If the patient is of a strong inflammatory habit, and no circumstance supervenes, which may otherwise affect his health, the poison seldom produces any disease till after forty days, sometimes not till after three or four months; and there have been instances where it has lain inactive a whole year; but it may well be questioned whether disorders, resembling hydrophobia, which occur after a longer period, are really of the same kind (Aphorism. Boerhav. § 1137).’

The use of mercury has been depreciated by our author without sufficient reason. So far as can be judged, in a case of so much uncertainty, we think it has been useful as a prophylactic. In the volume referred to there is more than one instance, related with great accuracy and precision, with seeming candour and fidelity, of its being successful after the first symptoms had come on. But it must be used with great boldness, and the salivation properly kept up. In these instances the disease came on at the usual time, in its common form, and we have no reason to doubt of their being true hydrophobias.

We do not mention the chances of the disease not appearing, or the utility of these prophylactics and curative remedies, to depreciate the method recommended by Dr. Hamilton. It is undoubtedly the first, and an essentially necessary step. Every practitioner is inexcusable who neglects it. Dr. Hamilton seems to extend the period of its probable success. From a careful review of all the facts we think it will certainly succeed, if practised before the return of a new soreness in the wound, before the affection of the lymphatics, or of the conglobate glands. It is highly probable that it will succeed twenty days after the bite, though the sooner it be done the chance of success is greater.

Where the parts are much torn, and the saliva seems to be inserted deeply among the tendons, much must be left to the judgment of the practitioner, much depends on the resolution of the patient, and the circumstances of the bite. Speaking generally, we think there is dependence enough on the effects
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of a free suppuration, on prophylactic and other remedies, to decide against the loss of a limb, in a case of so much doubt, where the disease may not follow.

'It is not,' says the historian of the French Society, 'certain, that a person bitten will become mad, because the poison may be discharged by suppuration, or the animal œconomy may not be susceptible of the poison; because it is not certain always that the animal is really mad. Terror and apprehension aggravate the symptoms beyond what the cause would otherwise produce; and tearing the skin and other sensible parts, may occasion accidents, which should not be confounded with hydrophobia.' Many remedies occur in the French collection, which are not mentioned by Dr. Hamilton; among these are the Tullin remedy, which resembles that of Palmarius; the scarabæus melonte*, which acts as a violent diuretic; and the belladonna, a medicine now well known. We would recommend another for trial, viz. very large and repeated doses of opium, which may be given in very different ways. Poppy heads may even be boiled in the water used for the warm bath.

On the whole, Dr. Hamilton's work contains a popular account of the subject, with judicious, and generally accurate remarks. It deserves great commendation. It has, however, unfortunately happened, that almost every foreign or uncommon name is mis-printed.

A System of Divinity, in a Course of Sermons, on the Being, Nature, and Attributes of God; on some of the most important Articles of the Christian Religion, in Connection; and on the several Virtues and Vices of Mankind. In Six Volumes. By the Rev. William Davy, A. B. 12mo. 1l. 1s. sewed. Wilkie.

THESE are plain practical discourses, on the subject mentioned in the title. Mr. Davy pretends not to elegance; and disclaims every pretence to novelty: on the whole, however, these discourses may be highly useful. We perceive, in many parts, the inequality which must attend on compilations; and we think that our author has not acted always judiciously, in connecting the scattered limbs of theologians: independent of the general appearance, which is too much that of patchwork, the different passages sometimes form very complete contrasts; but we should select his own apology.

'It may be confessed, that he would not be thought so assuming as to pretend to advance any new doctrines, having been cautious not to produce any thing but what hath been already

* It does not appear that these remedies were very successful.

approved by good authority: his chief aim is to represent the fundamentals of our religion the same by his explication, as they have always been represented to be by others the most judicious expositors, whom, therefore, he hath made his teachers, being in no way ambitious to say new things, but only carefully to enforce, in a more useful way, old truths, and to bring together, in one body, the detached works of the best authors; that what hath hitherto been the entertainment of a few only, might be set forth for the benefit of the world at large; and every one be supplied with a System of practical Divinity, in every way suited to the advancement of family devotion.

‘As volumes of sermons, therefore, and systems of divinity, have appeared in public, and have been as readily received under the confessed title of other men’s labours, it was thought that a compilation, made from the best sense of different authors on the same subjects, properly connected, with improvements, might be more serviceable than the confined sentiments of one author only. However,

‘Where a number of authors were not to be had on any subject, or one appeared in every respect preferable to all others, he hath thankfully made the best use of that single help, save only in abridgment.’

Our readers will observe the peculiarity of our author’s style, which is preserved in his Sermons. We cannot so well give a specimen of the feelings excited, by being sent to different authors for a continuation of the same subject. We can often trace him; and from Tillotson we step to Jortin, and many others,

‘*Modo me Thebis modo ponit Athenis.*’

If our author is not a complete sermon writer, he has at least *one* of the qualities of a good poet.

In the first volume he endeavours to show that there is a God, and but one God, though not according to the Socinian doctrine; that God is a Spirit, omnipresent, eternal, the Father of all, the first Cause, and last End of all Things; that his Dominion is supreme; that he is blessed, holy, immutable, and impartial.

In the second volume, Mr. Davy enlarges on the Omnipotence, the Wisdom, the Knowledge, the Goodness, the Mercy, the Justice, the Truth and Faithfulness, the Patience, Long-Suffering, Forbearance, and Incomprehensibility of God. He exhorts his readers to imitate the perfections of God, and the life of Christ. He concludes with a sermon on the Gifts and Graces of the Holy Spirit.

The next volume is on some of the most important articles of the Christian religion: on the Benefits of Creation, Preservation, Redemption; the Danger of neglecting Salvation; the

the Certainty, the End and Effects of a future Judgment; the Happiness and Misery of Heaven and Hell; the Necessity and Practicableness of Religion; with an Exhortation to Perseverance in religious Conduct.

The Sermons in the fourth volume are on the Folly and Danger of Infidelity, with the Nature and Necessity of Faith; against Strife and Evil Speaking, opposed to a due Christian Conversation; on Love, Gentleness, and Meekness; against Lying and Swearing, contrasted with Truth and *proper* Oaths; against Anger and rash Vows, with their opposites, Peacefulness, and an Enquiry how far rash Vows are obligatory; against Revenge, and on the Forgiveness of Injuries; against Pride, and on Humility; against Envy, and on Content: against rash Censuring, and on the due Regulation of our Thoughts; against Injustice, and on the Rule of Equity; against Unmercifulness, and on Mercy; against Theft, and on Honesty; against Impatience, and on Patience.

In the next volume he pursues these contrasts, in considering the Evil of Anxiety contrasted with the Trust in God; he dissuades his hearers against Covetousness, Ambition, Self-Love, Withholding, Prodigality, Intemperance, Uncleanliness, Idleness, and Worldly-mindedness; and excites them to Mediocrity, Lowliness of Mind, general Benevolence, the Duty of Distributing, Prudence, Sobriety, Chastity, Industry, and Heavenly-mindedness. He points out the Evils which attend Excess of Pleasure, and Excess of Sorrow; the Sin of profaning the Sabbath Day, is opposed to Fervency in Devotion; the Necessity of partaking the Holy Sacrament, and the Danger of neglecting it, are equally enforced; the great Benefit of Consideration, and the great Danger of hardening the Heart, are insisted on in the two concluding sermons of the volume.

The sixth volume contains Sermons of a moral tendency, and occasional ones. The Evil of enticing others to sin; fraternal Reproof; bad Company, and its evil Tendency; a due Observance of a right Conduct; the Sin and Danger of bad Habits; the Utility of an early Education; universal Obedience, and the Danger of Inconstancy; the great Duty of improving the present Time, and the Danger of Delay, and a Death-Bed Repentance; the Sin of misleading the Weak, and the Duty of assisting them; the Folly of youthful Pleasures, and the Duties of Youth; the Infirmities and Follies of Old Age, with the Duties and Consolations of the aged; the Sin and Danger of forgetting God, and the Duty of acknowledging him; Hypocrisy and Sincerity; the Duty of Subjects and of Governors are properly explained and considered;

sidered; and the whole is concluded with a general comprehensive View of our Duty.

The occasional Sermons are on Christmas and New-Year's Day, Good-Friday, Easter, Ascension-Day, on Trinity Sunday, and a Fast Day.

From a work so miscellaneous, it is not easy to select a proper specimen; and from a professed compilation, it would be improper. We wish our author success, in an undertaking so precarious as the printing of Sermons; but we are pleased to see it supported by a pretty liberal subscription, particularly of his brethren in his own neighbourhood.

Prospectus of a New Translation of the Holy Bible from corrected Texts of the Originals, compared with the Ancient Versions. With various Readings, explanatory Notes, and critical Observations. By the Rev. A. Geddes, LL. D. 4to. 1l. 1s. Faulder.

THE collation of different manuscripts of the Old Testament has long since evinced, what was formerly suspected, that various errors had accidentally crept into the text, and that some changes had been designedly made to favour the tenets of particular sects. It was time then to bestow that attention on the text of the Bible, which had succeeded so well in explaining and illustrating profane authors; it was time to clear away those incongruities and absurdities, which were a disgrace to our understandings and to our religion. Dr. Kennicot, who took the lead in this great work, has done much, but more still remains; and we are happy to find that able labourers are executing the task with industry and attention; and that we may at last expect to see the word of God cleared from the errors of ignorance and superstition. These works are, however, designed for the Orientalist who can, not only read the original, but comprehend those nice distinctions on which verbal criticism must often depend. The English reader wants assistance still; and that assistance, under the patronage of lord Petre, Dr. Geddes, who seems peculiarly qualified for the work, now offers.

In this very able and intelligent Prospectus, he gives an account of the state of the text, the various editions of the Bible in different languages, with their several characters, and the method he purposes to pursue in his own edition. His view of the subject is so full and comprehensive, so clear and exact, that he has left us little to add, or to blame. The general opinion relating to the nice accuracy of the text, he attributes, in a great degree, to the superstitious veneration for

for the Masora. This had undoubtedly considerable influence; but it was assisted by two other considerations. Those who laid the greatest stress on the Old Testament, and called in its aid on all occasions, were obliged, as much as possible, to keep trivial errors out of sight, lest one stain might sully the bright purity of the rest. The sacred oracles were supposed to have been kept with no common care, if they were not above the reach of the unhallowed finger which should be raised to corrupt them; and it would have been a superfluous labour, solicitously to guard against an accident which no one could be so careless or so daring as to commit. The other consideration was of a more political nature. To reform the text of the Bible would have appeared, to the ignorant, little less than a change of a national religion; few of the common people can understand the distinction between verbal and essential errors; between the mistakes of a translator and the dictates of heaven. When the style was changed, many supposed that the Sunday was not kept holy, because it did not occur on the same day of the month; and when Dr. Kennicot published his first dissertation, some serious people were alarmed at the audacity of his design. Both these considerations prevented the attempt from being made, till some of the means of executing it were taken from us, till others were almost inaccessible, and the difficulty which must attend every part of the undertaking was greatly increased.

If then the errors are verbal, if no material mistakes have been made in essential doctrines, why are we so scrupulously anxious about the purity of a text, already so perfect in the material parts? The question has been often asked, and often properly answered. In the New Testament, some manuscripts afford very different readings; and an important passage, at least important in the opinion of many, has been sometimes left out. We may, however, add to the answers, and for this reason we have introduced the question, that from the collation of many different manuscripts, from comparing quotations made from those not in our hands, from the passages of our Saviour's life said to have fulfilled the prophecies, and from a comparison of all the evidence to which we can have access, will it be unexceptionably ascertained, that the errors are those of transcribers and translators only.

The first great æra of the Vulgate is the edition of Jerom. It was the first which approached to the degree of perfection required for an establishment; and we mention it, chiefly to observe, that Dr. Geddes appreciates its value, enumerates its perfections and errors, with great propriety and impartiality. The corrections of the Vulgate, by Sixtus and Clement, are well

well known: we shall select our author's opinion on it in its present state.

Dr James, in his *Bellum Papale*, made a minute and invidious collation of the two editions of Sixtus and Clement; from which he and others have drawn conclusions not very favourable to the Roman see. But when the very most they ask is granted them, and when it is allowed that neither of the editions are faultless, does it follow that the Vulgate is not still a most respectable translation; or that the council were in the wrong to prefer it to all other Latin versions that had yet appeared? I shall have frequent occasions to justify it against the cavils of Amana, and other such supercilious and contentious critics; and to shew that it is, in many particular passages, a more genuine copy of Scripture than the present Masoretic text. Indeed the outrageous attacks made on this famous version by some, not the most judicious, Protestant writers, may have, partly, arisen from a desire of retorting on such indiscreet Catholics, as had thrown unmerited abuse on the original. At present, the learned of both sides are in a fair way of being reconciled, in this one point at least; and seem willing to make mutual concessions. The Catholics are ready to own that the Vulgate is not so pure a rivulet as some of their too zealous predecessors maintained; and the Protestants as readily acknowledge that the present Hebrew text is not so untainted a source as was long believed. Thus both contribute, in different ways, towards a re-establishment of the true text. Those without hesitation correct the Vulgate by the original, where the Vulgate is evidently faulty; and these make no scruple to make use of the Vulgate in restoring the true text of the original, when the original is evidently or probably corrupted.

The author's remarks on the extent which may be allowed to conjectural criticism, his rules of translation, and his arguments against the Masoretic points and accents, have our full and hearty concurrence.

Dr Geddes mentions Tyndal and Coverdale's first English translation of the Bible with much respect, while he is not blind to its errors. Of our present translation he speaks in the following manner:

The means and the method employed to produce this translation, promised something extremely satisfactory; and great expectations were formed from the united abilities of so many learned men, selected for the purpose, and excited to emulation by the encouragement of a munificent prince, who had declared himself the patron of the work. Accordingly, the highest eulogiums have been made on it, both by our own writers and by foreigners; and, indeed, if accuracy, fidelity, and the strictest attention to the letter of the text, be supposed to constitute the qualities of an excellent version, this of all
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versions must, in general, be accounted the most excellent. Every sentence, every word, every syllable, every letter and point, seem to have been weighed with the nicest exactitude, and expressed, either in the text or margin, with the greatest precision. Pagninus himself is hardly more literal; and it was well remarked by Robertson, above a hundred years ago, that it may serve for a lexicon of the Hebrew language, as well as for a translation.'

Its faults are said to be a defect in the idiom, as English; a want of uniformity of style; mistake in the meaning of some words; too great precision, which has introduced the Italic explanations, and a slight warping in favour of the translator's peculiar sentiments. The defect in idiom we cannot allow to be a fault: it raised the language above common use, and has almost sanctified it; nor would we lose the noble simplicity, the energetic brevity, for all the idiomatic elegance which a polished age can bestow. Dr. Geddes objects to a translation too literal, but we wish not to see the present text changed, unless where real errors render it necessary. The venerable tree, which we have always regarded with a religious respect, cannot be pruned to modern fashions without our feeling the most poignant regret. Our attachment to this venerable relic has involuntarily made our language warm; yet we rest secure in Dr. Geddes' good sense, and his opinions on the subject, that no very great change will be made unless when it is really necessary.

We shall conclude with our author's 'short notice of the general œconomy of his work,' and our most sincere good wishes for his success.

'Although the new version be made from a corrected text of the original, the present printed copies are never departed from, without a special notation. The additions, omissions, transpositions and variations, are all distinguished by respective symbols, and supported by corresponding authorities.

'The text of the version will be divided into new and more natural sections, the number and contents of which will be printed on the outer margin: but the old division of chapters and verses will, for the reasons above mentioned, be retained, and marked in the inner margin.

'The correctional references, various readings, and explanatory notes, will be at the bottom of the page; the critical annotations at the end of the volume.

'A new comparative Chronology will accompany every principal transaction, and be expressed in years before Christ, at the top of the page.

'With regard to the concordantial references, or parallel passages, with which the margins of our Bibles are crowded; those of them only will be retained that are manifestly real:
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for the greater number are only distant, and often arbitrary allusions.

To every volume, and for the most part to every book, will be prefixed a particular Preface; in which a compendious critical account will be given of its real or supposed author, its subject, style, and character, and the rank it holds among the Hebrew scriptures in the Jewish and Christian canons.

The whole of the Old Testament will, as far as can be yet conjectured, be comprised in four volumes. The first will contain the Pentateuch and its supplement the Book of Joshua: the second, the rest of the Historical Books in their natural order; the third, the Hagiographa; and the fourth, the Prophets. To these it is intended to add a fifth, which, if properly executed, would be an useful introduction to the other four. Beside a general Preface and Indexes, it should contain the discussion of a great number of questions relative to the Hebrew scriptures; their antiquity, authenticity, inspiration, &c. many of which still appear to be susceptible of farther elucidation.

Aphorisms on the Application and Use of the Forceps, on Preternatural Labours, and on Labours attended with Hemorrhage.

By Thomas Denman, M. D. Small 8vo. 2s. Johnson.

An Essay on Uterine Hemorrhages depending on Pregnancy and Parturition. By Thomas Denman, M. D. 2s. Johnson.

An Essay on Natural Labours. By Thomas Denman, M. D. 2s. Johnson.

THESE subjects are so nearly connected that we shall consider them in one article. They form a part of the outline of the pathology and practice of midwifery; and though the first are not new, yet as they have never been considered in our Journal, and as they are in many respects important, we shall examine them with somewhat more than usual attention.

The Aphorisms are concise and clear, comprehensive and satisfactory. What relates to the forceps is so judicious as to demand our most unreserved commendations. Those parts which relate to natural labours and uterine hæmorrhages are more fully enlarged on in the subsequent essays, and will claim our attention in their more extended state. In our review of Dr. Hamilton's Outlines, we mentioned the case of the arm presenting, when by the efforts of nature the child was turned, probably by a kind of rotation, to a very different and more manageable situation. We shall add Dr. Denman's concise remarks on this subject:

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‘ With respect to the benefit we can, in practice, derive from the knowledge of this fact, I may be permitted to observe, that the custom of turning and delivering by the feet in presentations of the arm, will remain necessary and proper, in all cases, in which the operation can be performed with safety to the mother, or give a chance of preserving the life of the child. But when the child is dead, and when we have no other view but merely to extract the child, to remove the danger thence arising to the mother, it is of great importance to know that the child may be turned spontaneously, by the action of the uterus. If we avail ourselves of that knowledge, the pain and danger which sometimes attend the operation of turning a child, may be avoided. Nor would any person versed in practice, fixing upon a case of preternatural presentation, in which he might expect the child to be turned spontaneously, be involved in difficulty, if, from a defect of the pains, or any other cause, he should be disappointed in his expectations: nor would the suffering, or chance of danger to the patient be increased by such proceeding.’

The treatment of convulsions is left imperfect: it is indeed a disease of the pregnant state that is with difficulty managed. Dr. Denman speaks with propriety of the inutility of antispasmodics; and when we reflect on the cause, viz. the distension of the uterus, or probably its pressure on the neighbouring nerves, we can have little doubt of their failure. He proposes sprinkling cold water on the patient's face; and this has succeeded for the moment, but it has delayed the fits only for a very short period. We have employed opiates freely without success; but should expect some advantage from a bolder practice in this way. There are, however, many inconveniences to be dreaded: among the rest, a suspension of the action of the uterus, which might, after child-bed, occasion profuse hæmorrhages. Dr. Denman's observation of the efficacy of a superior stimulus, is supported by this fact, that the convulsions during labour are commonly in the absence of pain. On the whole, nothing is probably to be expected but from delivery, and the child is almost always dead; yet, on the one hand, we must avoid too much stimulus in inducing labour; on the other, too long time must not be spent in waiting, as the recovery will, in that case, be slow, and often incomplete. The child by the convulsive efforts will be pushed forward, and when the dilatation is once began, the distension of the uterus may be lessened by breaking the membranes, which always lessens the convulsions, and the pains may be increased by the slightest stimulus. This method has universally been successful in our hands, if we except the loss of the child, whose life has very seldom, if ever, been pre-

preserved by any mode of treatment, where the convulsions have been violent.

Dr. Denman's observations on uterine hæmorrhages, in the first essay, are full, clear, and exact. 'These observations,' says he, 'I have written with great pleasure, hoping they may be of service; and with some confidence, having been so happy as never to lose a patient in any kind of hæmorrhage.' These discharges are divided according as they appear, in the early or in the advanced periods of gestation; previous or subsequent to the expulsion of the placenta. The advanced period is supposed to commence at the sixth month. Our author thinks that women seldom miscarry from general weakness and irritability, but from some affections of this kind in the uterine system, when there are no other apparent causes: in some cases, as he justly observes, abortion happens from the disease of the ovum. We perceive indeed in children a defect of constitution: they sink often, at different periods; without evident disease, and their system appears not to be calculated for a longer life. We may, therefore suppose that the same internal causes operate at an earlier state, and it may as well sink from a defect of the vis vitæ before it has breathed as afterwards. Yet, as we know not when this is the case, every precaution should be adopted, and every excess carefully avoided.

Our author mentions the usual methods of guarding against abortion, and decides on them with judgment. Confinement he speaks of with doubt; and we own that, under our directions, it has not succeeded when rigorously pursued. In cases of abortion Dr. Denman thinks that the placenta, if retained, should not be hastily separated by manual or instrumental assistance. He has never found its delay in any respect injurious.

The great objects, in the relief of hæmorrhages, are to procure a contraction of the uterus, or to favour the formation of coagula. The uterus contracts during faintings, and of course cordials, in such cases, should not be too freely used, since both purposes are obtained in this state. Coolers, in the same view, are the most effectual astringents, and external cold applications are highly useful. Dr. Denman's sentiments on opiates are peculiar: we did not mention them when we spoke of his Aphorisms, because they occurred in this essay somewhat more fully. We shall transcribe them, while at the same time we own that they are not supported by our own observations.

'Opiates have been recommended in abortions, and in all cases of uterine hemorrhage; but I seldom use them, unless

with a view of moderating an uncommon degree of pain, or of quieting some tumult which attended or followed the accident ; having reasoned myself into an opinion that they do not deserve the high commendation which has been given them. Some pain is necessary and unavoidable, whenever an effort is made for the exclusion of any substance out of the cavity of the uterus. The degree of pain proves the degree of action raised for this purpose, and we should consider how far by lessening the pain we may lessen the action ; and by lessening that action, by which the ovum would be expelled, whether we contribute to the suppression of the hemorrhage, or to the more regular conduct of the abortion.'

The following observations deserve attention : they are no less just than perspicuous :

* In abortions, dreadful and alarming as they sometimes are, it is a great comfort to know that they are generally void of danger, either from the hemorrhage, or on any other account. It is perhaps impossible to explain, but the fact is undoubtedly true, that an equal loss of blood, and with apparently equal effects, should, in abortions, if properly managed, and the patient be in good health when they take place, not occasion any danger ; and yet at the full period of utero-gestation, that they should be so dangerous, that one considers those who recover, as having a lucky escape. It is wonderful also to observe how soon women recover from the debility occasioned by hemorrhages in abortions ; and how long a time is often required for their recovery in advanced pregnancy. But though I reckon there is no danger from mere abortion, yet when the accident is in consequence of acute diseases, there is often extreme danger ; for women abort because they are already in great danger, and this is aggravated by the abortion. Without a more accurate distinction we may still form an erroneous prognostic. It is said, for example, that women who miscarry, or are delivered at the time of their having the small-pox, universally die. Now, if a pregnant woman should, at any period of pregnancy, expel her child in the commencement of that disease, perhaps from the violence of the eruptive fever, she may not only escape the danger, but go through the disease with as much regularity as if she had not miscarried. But if that period of the disease be passed without abortion, and the patient should go on to the time of the crisis, and then miscarry, or be delivered, if at her full time, the general prognostic will be too true ; at least the death of the patient has followed in every case of this kind which I have seen.'

-In considering the prognostics in hæmorrhages in the advanced states, our author observes very justly that where there is pain, the danger is less than where there is none. This is connected with his observations on the use of opiates ; but we apprehend that opiates, in these cases, have more than one effect :

effect: they destroy irritation, which may exist in distant parts, and accelerate the circulation; they give a calm serenity, or lull the patient into a sleepy security; perhaps too they have a distant power on the heart and arteries, and lessen their action: we are convinced that they have, in many instances, this effect. There is another observation of our author, viz, that vomiting, so far from increasing hæmorrhages, lessens them. We remember to have read a treatise written by a practitioner in Dublin, whose name we do not recollect, in which emetics were expressly recommended for hæmorrhages of this kind. Dr. Robinson has used them in hæmoptoe, and we have followed him in this practice, at least with no bad effects, sometimes with advantage.

In profuse discharges, at the advanced states, Dr. Denman, as usual, advises delivery. He thinks it the safer error to deliver too soon; but this we shall not enlarge on, as the proper period has been so well ascertained by Mr. Rigby. The directions for the management are not easily abridged, and we rather avoid the task, since so much danger may arise from a small omission.

The advice for the management of the placenta is very judicious. The author avoids too great haste, or too long delay: he considers it as the effect of the action of the uterus, and all his measures are directed to this object.

* In all cases of dangerous hemorrhage, when the placenta is retained, it was said to be equally justifiable and necessary to extract the placenta, as it was to deliver the woman of her child under the same circumstances. But this general rule requires explanation, and some skill in the application. When there is a present hemorrhage, so important as by its violence or continuance to threaten danger, the placenta ought to be immediately extracted. This is not an opinion, but a rule of practice. But if there has already been an hemorrhage, so profuse as to occasion danger; and the common consequences of loss of blood, as fainting and the like, have already followed; the placenta ought not to be extracted, nor the patient disturbed, nor any change made, till she be revived from her extreme debility; as the danger would be thereby increased, and the patient die, during or immediately after the operation, as I have seen and known in too many instances. In other words, the extraction of the placenta is to be considered as a remedy for a present or apprehended hemorrhage, but not for one which has already happened, that is, for the debility occasioned by it.

* In cases also in which there is no hemorrhage, if the placenta is not ejected, or if no efforts are made by the uterus for that purpose, a time will come, when we must determine upon its extraction, or leave it behind; and the latter being unsafe and

therefore unjustifiable, the mere retention will be sufficient authority for us to extract it. Upon this point there can be no dispute, except as to the time, and we will say, leaving the matter somewhat at large, that if the placenta be not expelled at the end of two hours from the birth of the child, that it ought to be extracted. I can however recollect many examples of a retained placenta, without a hemorrhage, to which I have been called within twelve or even twenty-four hours after the birth of the child, in which the placenta has been very easily managed, and no ill consequences have followed.

The hæmorrhage, after the separation of the placenta, is managed on the same principles. After it is come into the vagina, our author chuses to delay the final extraction till some effort is made by the constitution to remove it. The fainting is rather allowed than removed, and indeed in this state, as well as in the employment of cooling medicines, Dr. Denman steers judiciously between the two extremes of exhausting the powers of life by the remedies, or of the patient's sinking by the discharge, for want of an active exertion of the means in his hand. We have enlarged much on this pamphlet, because we think it truly valuable; but we should add, that we have left many useful parts without remark, which it would have been improper to mutilate by any abridgment.

The Essay on Natural Labour is not inferior to Dr. Denman's other works; but it admits of fewer remarks, and scarcely requires an abridgment. The following pathological observation we shall preserve. We believe it to be new, and we know it to be correct and ingenious.

‘Those who endure any kind of pain, express their suffering by some peculiarity of manner, or by some tone of voice which, to a nice observer, will generally discover the part affected, together with the kind and degree of pain. Sharp pain is universally expressed by an interrupted and acute tone of voice; obtuse pain by a continued and grave tone; unless the expressions are controlled by an acquired firmness of mind which, on particular occasions, may enable it to rise above the infirmities of the body. The expressions of pain uttered by women in the act of parturition may be considered as complete indications of the state of the process, so that an experienced practitioner is as fully master of the state of his patient, if he hears her expressions, as by any other mode of examination. He must, however, understand and make allowances for the peculiarities of different patients, or he will be deceived; because in tender constitutions, the sensations being quick, and the resolution faint, the mode of expression will be according to the sense, and not in proportion to the degree of absolute pain.’

This remark is properly applied to the different pains in labour, and becomes highly useful in enabling the practitioner

to judge of the state of the labour: the ladies probably are not aware that even their cries are of importance.

In every part of the labour he recommends patience and resignation in the patient, and cautious attention, without a busy interference, in the practitioner. On the management necessary to prevent a laceration of the perinæum, he is very full; and his directions turn on the points just mentioned. It is probable, that the accident seldom happens, when the labour is not accelerated, either by the efforts of the patient, or the injudicious activity of the operator. This is in general true; yet, in strong healthy women, where the uterus has been much distended, its action has been so violent, as to become spasmodic and irresistible, in spite of every effort to delay the throes. The opinion of our author is, however, well founded, and supports what we have had formerly occasion to alledge, that the perinæum is preserved by pressure, rather in consequence of the delay, given to the labour, than of any additional power afforded to that part. We wish also to enforce the exception to this rule; because, in no respect is the conduct of the operator more frequently or more severely blamed. We believe the accident is sometimes beyond the power of the most sagacious surgeon to prevent.

With respect to the management of the child, the following observations deserve attention; but they are not to be considered too strictly. In weakly children they should be adhered to, but in others they appear of less importance.

‘ Perhaps the changes which take place in the body of the child, immediately after its birth, at least the manner in which they are produced, are not perfectly understood at this time. But we know if the child is in a healthy state, that it cries lustily and continually, when the air first rushes into its lungs, which are thereby expanded. This cry, which does not seem to be occasioned by pain but surprise, is in its consequences extremely important; as it is the cause of an exertion of all the powers of the child, and enables it to acquire a new manner of living, inconsistent with, and very different from that which it possessed before it was born. But the change from uterine life, as it may be called, to breathing life, is not instantaneous, but gradual; and the uterine life continues, till the breathing life is perfected, as is proved by the continuance of the circulation between the child and placenta, for some time after it has cried. As the breathing life becomes perfected, the uterine life declines, and the manner of its declension may be proved by attending to the pulsation of the navel-string, which first ceases at the part nearest the placenta, and then by slow degrees nearer and nearer to the child, till at length it entirely ceases; so that the whole of the circulating blood ultimately resides in the body of the child, and the navel string becomes

quite flaccid. It seems reasonable to believe that the continuance of the uterine life after the birth of the child, was designed for its preservation from the accidents of its state at that time; should the acquisition of its breathing life be, by any cause, retarded or hindered. If then the practice of tying, or dividing the navel-string the instant the child is born, be followed, though it were before vigorous, it will in some cases immediately decline, and never acquiring its perfect breathing life, will in a short time die: or, if the child were in a feeble or a dubious state, possessing only that life which it had during its residence in the uterus, as by tying and dividing the navel-string that life is destroyed before the breathing life is acquired, it must inevitably perish. We may therefore safely conclude, that the navel-string of a new born infant ought never to be tied or divided, till the circulation in it has ceased spontaneously.*

The subsequent conduct has already been insisted on, in our review of the former essay. We must now take leave of our author, for the present: his essay on preternatural labours, we purpose to consider with that on difficult labours, which we expect to receive very soon.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued from Vol. lxii. p. 466.)

IN our review of the last volume of the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts*, we mentioned, that in France a method had been invented of making cordage from some of the malvaceous plants. We were then aware that a memoir had been read in the Royal Academy, containing an account of some experiments of this kind; but, as the author acknowledged them to be imperfect, we wished for more satisfactory information. No other intelligence has yet been received; so that we shall now give some extracts from the Memoir of the abbé Cavanilles, a Spaniard, from the kingdom of Valentia.

The Chinese make cords from a species of the mallows, the *fidu abutilon* of Linnæus, and the missionary, from whom this account is derived, observes, that in some parts of Europe paper is made with some of the malvaceous plants. The abbé seems not to have been acquainted with this fact when his experiments were made; yet he fortunately adopted the same species, among others, for his principal trials. We suppose the Europeans alluded to are the Swedes.

Our author was led to reflections of this kind by what he saw daily practised in his own country. He knew that the agave Americana, after having made the inclosures of fields, would,

* Crit. Rev. vol. lxii. p. 248.

by its leaves, furnish a large quantity of fibres, coarse indeed, but very strong, of which cords were made. The *stipa tenacissima*, a species of feather-grass, is extremely useful in the same way: its leaves make cords, twine, mats, baskets, and a kind of stuff which is both cheap and strong. Round the fruit of the *chamærops humilis* are found fibres of some length; but its leaves are the most useful, and their fibres are applied to the same purpose as the fibres of the feather-grass. From the branches of the mulberry trees a similar substance is procured. The common mallows, macerated like hemp, affords a thread superior to hemp for spinning; and is said to make more beautiful cloths and stuffs than flax. The abbé observes, that one of the first grandes of Spain appeared at court in a habit made of this cloth. With all this information, he began his experiments in the garden of the duke d'Infantado.

He chose the *sida abutilon*, on account of its advantageous appearance, and its thick strait stalk. It loves water, and may be planted advantageously in marshes and ditches, where nothing else will grow. We must refer for particulars to the memoir; but, in general, the plants which succeeded best were sown in May, and they arrive at perfection in three months and a half. The maceration of the smaller stalks was finished in about fifteen days; of the larger in a month. The strength and goodness of the thread appeared to be in proportion to the perfection of the vegetation, and to the distance the plant was kept at from other plants. The fibres lie in strata, of which there are sometimes six: they are not quite strait, but preserve an undulating direction, so as to form a net-work in their natural positions. Their smell resembles that of hemp; the fibres are whiter, but more dry and harsh than those of hemp. The harshness is owing to a greenish gluten which connects the fibres; and the white colour must always be obtained at the expence of having this kind of thread less supple; when of its natural hue it is very soft and flexible.

This description belongs chiefly to the *sida*; but it will also apply to the *malva crispa*, *Peruviana*, and *Maurisiana*. The *malva crispa* gave, however, the greatest quantity of fibres, and its gluten was most copious. The fibres of the *sida abutilon*, and the *malva crispa*, are the longest and the strongest; those of the *Peruviana* and *Maurisiana* are the shortest and weakest. The fibres of those plants which had lost their leaves are less strong, though of equal length with those which had preserved them.

The comparative strength of the fibres of the malvaceous plants, and of hemp, cannot be exactly ascertained. Our author's plants were not in the greatest perfection; the fibres were also washed too much, and had lost their gluten. In his trials, the comparative force of the *abutilon* and hemp, in the smallest twines, were as 2 to 5; and in the largest as 1 to 3.

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At Rio Janeiro, cables are made from the jeriquen, a plant of South America, whose strength, when wet, is considerable; when dry, much less. The abbé therefore, moistened his malvaceous hemp, and found it stronger than before, while the resistance of common hemp was diminished by water. It must be added, that, in equal bulks, the fibres of the hemp are heavier.

The abbé has made cords and twine of this substance, and, what the spinners refused, has been manufactured into cloth. It may be useful to supply the place of hemp in times of scarcity, to lessen the consumption of it by employing the mallows in works of little importance, perhaps to make paper. It will not take up ground that is useful; for, in a soil adapted for hemp, the abbé recommends *its* cultivation: in marshes, waste and wet grounds, the mallows may be sown with advantage.

* * * *

The utility of the mallows, in making paper, leads us to mention a new invention, from Sweden, called stone-pasteboard. It is incombustible, or at least consumes very slowly and imperfectly: instead of being softened, it is hardened by water, and was invented by Dr. Faxe, physician of the admiralty at Calmar. The invention was first announced in the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, the 31st of July 1785, and its probable uses were then supposed to be, first, to cover houses, as it is light and solid, without being affected by the air; secondly, to line them within and without, in order to preserve them from fire and moisture; thirdly, to confine the plaster of the ceilings; fourthly, for ornament, since this paper may be cast into figures; fifthly, to preserve the powder in arsenals and on ship-board; sixthly, to line the ships and wooden piers in harbours, to preserve them from worms; and seventhly, to line the shoes of soldiers who are obliged to march in rain. Commissioners were appointed to examine the properties of this substance; and their experiments have fully established Dr. Faxe's assertions. The second and seventh proposals were subjected to particular experiments, which succeeded. We hear in England, of incombustible tubes for the new lamps; but our remarks on them we shall not make public, as we wish not to interfere with an useful invention. We shall be pleased to find that the inventors have derived any benefit from our account.

Dr. Faxe's pasteboard is prepared in different ways: that which is beaten is not penetrated by water; on the contrary, water has been kept in a cylinder of this kind three weeks without any loss. What has not been beaten, burns with more difficulty. Its expence is not considerable; two feet square cost no more than between two pence and three pence.

The preparation has not been published; but the substance has been subjected to a chemical analysis; and we shall mention its com-

composition, as it can do no injury to the inventor. The specimen employed was permeable by water. The colour is different in different pieces, viz. reddish brown, yellow, and white. It is with difficulty scratched by the nail, and is somewhat brittle; when kept in boiling water three hours, it was in no respect dissolved. From analysis, the reddish-brown pasteboard appears to contain about two parts of iron ore, one part of animal oil, probably oil of herrings, made into a paste, with two parts of the vegetable matter of common paper. The white contains calcareous earth, instead of iron ore; and the yellow seems to be the same with the white, and altered in appearance by being boiled in a solution of green vitriol. We need not enlarge on the many improvements of which this process is capable, or the various other uses to which it may be applied. An asbestine earth, which is not uncommon in many parts of England, would probably be preferable to either iron ore, or calcareous earth. It is lighter, less affected by fire, and capable of being rolled into more thin plates. It is of great consequence to give this kind of paper a greater body, and a more dense consistence, without increasing its weight.

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We did not expect to be able to perform our promise relating to the earth of rhubarb so soon, but we have met with the memoir we alluded to in a late Number. As it contains, however, little more than the fact itself, we shall repeat it somewhat more particularly, and subjoin M. Scheele's enquiry into the nature of other vegeable substances.

The Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm are published every three months, and the experiments which we sought after, occur in the first Number of last year. The name, earth of rhubarb, is a term applied to an insoluble salt, first found by our author in analyzing this celebrated purgative. It is a combination of the salt of wood-sorrel, and of lime; and the same earthy salt has been since found in different officinal roots and barks. The term is at present, therefore, improper, and we shall endeavour to affix a new one, before we conclude, better appropriated to its nature. We shall not mention the means by which this salt was formerly separated, because the author has since suggested a more commodious one. The substance to be examined is cut and bruised, some marine acid, diluted with water, is thrown upon it, and the whole is left some hours in digestion. The solution is filtered, and the acid saturated with caustic volatile alkali. If the vegetable contains the earth, it is dissolved by the acid, and separated by the alkali. The following roots contain the earthy salt in different proportions; the root of celleri, alkannet, carlina, cuscuma, white dittany, fennel, red gentian, asclepias, wild dock, liquorice, mandragora, anonis, common and Florentine orris, Swedish rhubarb, soap-wort, squills, Solomon's seal, tormentil, valerian, zedoary, and ginger. The barks of the barberry tree, cassia,

cassia, canella alba, cascarilla, caryophyllus aromaticus, China, common canella, cullilavan, frangula, ash, pomegranate, cassia, oaks, elder, simaruba, guaiacum, and elm. The bark of guaiacum and of the ash contain, on the surface, lime saturated with fixed air.

By the China bark we suspect is meant the China china, or Peruvian bark; and the name is altered either from an omission of the printer, or an error of the translator. While Scheele was professedly examining officinal roots and barks, he would not surely have omitted one of so much importance.

In this collection, we perceive the most active and most useful astringents. In the list of substances which contain no share of this soluble salt, we do not perceive one except the ipecacuanha, the polypodium, and the mechoacanna. The first of these is certainly an astringent rather from secondary effects than from a chemical nature; the second is only astringent after having been long kept; and the astringent effects of the last are founded more on its name of white rhubarb than actual experience. We have much reason then, from these experiments, to think that on this salt the astringent principle depends, or at least on this salt combined with an oil not peculiar to the class: we have more reason to think so from a comparison of the different experiments which have been made on astringent substances. Until this matter be rendered more certain, it may be called, from its chemical nature, oxalyne lime. It would have been rendered clearer if we had received any intelligence relating to the proportion of this salt in each body. It is not an objection, that many of these substances show no astringent power, since the salt may be in small quantities, its astringency may be checked by other ingredients, or the activity of the medicine may prevent it from being given in sufficient doses to shew its astringent powers.

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We shall conclude this miscellaneous sketch with some account of the transactions of the Royal Medical Society, at their last session. It was held the 29th of last August; and the prizes for the best memoirs on the Nature and Treatment of Epidemics, and on the Medical Constitution of the different Seasons, were distributed. The prizes are eighteen in number: six medals of 200 livres each (about 8l. 6s. 8d. sterling), and six of half that sum. In the third order are twelve prizes, each of which are valued at 50 livres, viz. 2l. 1s. 8d. each. There were a great number of competitors for these honorary distinctions; and the Society regretted that they had not more prizes to bestow. They wish to receive an account also of the Epidemics among Cattle, and of the Influence of the Seasons on their Diseases. As one of their great objects is to obtain a medical topography of the kingdom, or observations on epidemics, as connected with the situations of places, they repeat their requests for assistance in this respect.

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They allotted the first prize to M. Ramel, junior, M.D. for the best memoir on the following subject. 'To determine the Connection between the State of the Liver and the Diseases of the Skin: in what Circumstances the Degeneracy of the Bile, which accompanies cutaneous Complaints, is the Cause or Effect of the Eruptions; at the same Time to point out the Symptoms which distinguish the Power of the one over the other, and the particular Treatment which this Influence demands.'

The prize to be allotted that day was for the best memoir on the subject which is subjoined. 'To determine, by a comparative Enquiry into the Physical and Chemical Properties, the Nature of Woman's Milk, of the Milk of a Cow, a Goat, an Ass, an Ewe, and a Mare.' As the memors were not satisfactory, the prize is doubled, and the question continued. The analysis of all the milks is not expected; but woman's milk must not be overlooked.

The memoirs must be sent before the first of January 1788. This time will be strictly adhered to, and they must be sent, with the usual precautions of sealed billets, to M. Vicq d'Azyr, secrétaire perpetuel de la Société Rue des petits Augustins, N^o 2, Paris. They must be written in Latin or French; but, if in Latin, they will be translated before they are published.

Histoire de la Société Royale de Médecine, année 1780 & 1781, avec les Memoirs de Médecine & de Physique Médicale pour les mêmes Années, 4to. Paris.

THE bulk of this work, and the difficulty of determining from what point to begin an account of successive volumes, whose origin was not very distant, have contributed to delay this article. We hoped to have taken a cursory view of the whole, but the increasing weight of foreign and domestic literature renders this attempt impracticable; yet something must be said: a work of magnitude and importance, whose contents every practitioner should be acquainted with, is much neglected in this kingdom, to which great attention has been paid in the choice of foreign associates. We have often mentioned it in a cursory way, and now purpose to direct the attention of the public more particularly towards it; but we can only describe the general plan, and give a very short account of the last volume.

The Society was established by an arret of council, at the express command of the king of France, on April 29, 1776; but their first volume did not appear till the latter end of the year 1779. Four volumes have since been published, at irregular intervals; and the last seems to have been unusually delayed, though there is no reason to think that the designs of the Society, or their labours, have been in any degree neglected or remitted. Each volume is divided into the History and Memoirs; in fact, the distribution resembles that of the volumes
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of the Royal Academy of Sciences; but, in the latter, the history is an abridgement of the memoirs; in the work before us, it contains only those things which are not of sufficient importance to find a place in the memoirs. The different parts of the history are distributed into different sections, according to the subjects.

The first part of the History relates to the transactions at the different sessions; and contains all that relates to the prizes, the eulogies of their deceased associates, an account of the works presented to them, a review of the works of the associates, with the regulations respecting the conduct of the Society; then follow meteorological Observations; a topographical Description of the different Cities and Towns, with Remarks on the Constitutions of their Inhabitants; an Account of Endemics; Epidemics of every different kind; and Epizootics; Observations on the Nature and Treatment of any internal or external Disease that may have occurred; Anatomical Observations and Dissections; the Analysis of Medicines or Aliments, and Mineral Waters; the botanical or natural History of Substances employed either as Food or Medicine; general Philosophical Observations applicable to Medicine.

The second part of the volume contains Memoirs or select Dissertations on different subjects relating to the practice of medicine, or medical philosophy, arranged in the same manner as the subjects of the Memoirs. At the end are found the Memoirs which have been rewarded by the prizes. The only exception which has occurred to this plan, relates to the Memoirs on the Hydrophobia, which were published separately, at an early period, for the reasons assigned in our review of Dr. Hamilton's work in the present Number.

This is a bold and extensive outline, which is filled up, as may be expected, unequally. The medical topography, and the description of epidemics, is in general executed with great propriety, and deserves to be imitated in some of our Essays. We once suggested it to the authors of the 'Medical Communications.' The practice is not always happy or decisive; but there are numerous observations from their foreign associates, which are of great importance.—Their review of books is partial, both in the characters and in the selection. It seems confined to those published by their associates, whom they seldom think capable of error. The chemical and botanical observations are often curious and useful; the Memoirs frequently contain a series of judicious and well conducted experiments.

In the volume which is our present object, we shall make no remarks on what is of a private nature in the transactions of the Society, or what is chiefly interesting to the inhabitants of France. This comprehends their private regulations, and the medical topography: the description of epidemics is incapable of being abridged; and, what relates to the diseases of cattle, should be examined in the volume itself. The eulogies are those
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of Dr. Fothergill, M. de Montigni, M. du Hamel, fir John Pringle, M. M. Harmant Butter, and Vetillart du Ribert, correspondents; Dr. Hunter, and M. Sanchez. The life of Sanchez we shall probably enlarge on in an account of some of his works.

In the Reports and Memoirs published by the Society, since the appearance of the third volume, are some which are important; but they have occurred to us in our former enquiries. M. Doulcet's Memoir on the Use of Ipecacuanha in the puerperal Fever, the Report on M. Janin's Antimephitique, and that on Animal Magnetism, are the most interesting.

In the practice of Medicine are some observations of great use, particularly two Dissertations by M. Hallé, where the appearances on dissection were found to be very different from what might have been expected from the symptoms. M. Vicq d'Azyr's Observations on Animal Concretions, continued in successive volumes, present a series of very curious remarks. There are many others which we have not room to mention. The surgical observations in this volume are of no great importance.

In the department of chemistry and materia medica, there is a description of the saliva in general, and an analysis of the saliva of a horse. This part contains also the reports concerning the effects of eating lizards, which we have already mentioned; and on a remedy of M. Weisse. The last remedy is styled 'anti-laiteux.' It is supposed by the French pathologists, that the milk, when suppressed, is frequently deposited on other parts; even when diminished it is accused; and we hear sometimes of 'depositions laiteux,' when the secretion is continued in its full quantity. M. Weisse had acquired great reputation by his medicine; and it appears to be a jumble of tonics and stimulants. They could do little harm, however, because they are in small insignificant doses; they did some good, because, with the help of Epsom salt, they were slightly laxative. The commissioners speak of the remedy with some propriety, and caution practitioners against employing it when there is any fever. In this part of the work we receive an account of an Alpine plant, called the phiteuma, which resembles the lobelia siphilitica in its appearance and its effects. The trivial name is not mentioned; but it is not an uncommon plant on many high hills; a species of it occurs on the hills of Sussex and Hampshire: it is there called horned rampions. The next extract relates to the supposed cure of the gout, by a shock from an electric eel; but we are told too, that the gouty man exerted his strength, and walked some way in water, which will account for the relief, independent of the shock. The last article, in this part of the history, contains Reflections on the Means of relieving Asphyxies, and bringing on Respiration in Children, seemingly dead-born. The author recommends dephlogisticated air, and describes a method of injecting it into the lungs. He
speaks

speaks also of its success in consumptions: it may, perhaps, facilitate the breathing; but we have no reason to think that it will contribute to the cure of an ulcerated tubercle.

In the botanical class are an Observation on the pernicious Effects of a Mushroom called *Agaricus conicus*, and Experiments on the Influence of different Grains on the Bread of the Inhabitants of the Country. By grains, the author means the seeds of weeds, accidentally mixed with the corn.

In the department of general physics, applicable to medicine, is a very useful table of the specific gravities of different substances used in medicine, with an account of the marriages, births, &c. during ten subsequent years at Montpellier. In the same article are other observations relating to the probability of lives at Montpellier. This city does not seem particularly healthy; for one in twenty-eight die there annually. There are few country towns in England where the mortality is so great, even among manufactures that are reputed unhealthy.

The memoirs in this volume are essays of considerable importance. The longest and most useful we must pass over cursorily, since it would exceed our limits only to mention their several plans. In the first, M. Geoffroy gives an account of the constitutions of the years 1780 and 1781, with a detail of the diseases which prevailed during that period at Paris. The second is M. Raymond's Memoir on Epidemics, which received the prize in 1781. It is a masterly dissertation, in which the author traces, with the true Hippocratic spirit of observation, the progress of intermittents, their influence on the intercurrent diseases, the mutual influences of each on the other, and the connections each have with the changes of seasons, and the more sudden alterations of weather. The treatment of epidemics, and how far this treatment influences that of intercurrent diseases, is examined at some length.

The Medical Constitution of 1778, with the History of an Epidemic Dysentery, which reigned at Pomerai-sur-Sèvre, by M. Durand; and one on the Medical Topography of Bourg-Saint Andéol, by M. Madier, then follow.

The next Dissertation received the prize in 1779. It is an answer to this question. 'Does a miliary Fever, distinct from all other Exanthemata, really exist; and in what Constitution should it be arranged?' The author decides in favour of the existence of a fever of this kind, which can be properly distinguished. In England we think differently, and are supported by De Haen of Vienna: our own opinion is nearly of the same kind. But it is very difficult to establish a negative proposition. There are many epidemics which occasionally occur, and oppose the best concerted plans, or confuse what seemed the best established opinions. We need not enumerate instances; our author's regimen was of the cold kind, but the eruption still appeared. If there is any part of his conduct which admits of a

doubt, and gives a little uncertainty to his opinions, it is the omission of cooling laxatives in any great extent. The constitution, in which it is to be arranged, cannot, he thinks, be exactly ascertained. The disease is said to be at first catarrhal, then inflammatory, and at last putrid.

The Essay on the Scurvy also received the prize. The author first examines the fresh vegetables commonly used in scurvy; then the pharmaceutical and chemical compositions. He next compares the advantages and disadvantages of the different means to ascertain what is the real nature of antiscorbutic remedies, to adapt them, either by combination, or other methods, to different kinds or degrees of scurvy; and then enquires into their nature, by a chemical analysis. The second part is a regular treatise on the scurvy, as a disease. M. Goguelin is not a mere theorist: he has seen the disease frequently on the element on which it only appears in its proper form; and in his Essay many facts are collected which deserve attention. His reasoning is not always clear or satisfactory. One thing we ought to mention, viz. that the common teas, from our own aromatic herbs, sweetened with large quantities of honey, were of considerable service to seamen afflicted with the scurvy, and preserved their lives in circumstances apparently desperate, till their situation enabled them to procure fresh vegetables. The formulæ are very numerous, and frequently very trifling.

The next Memoir is by M. Carrere, on the Means of Preservation from contagious epidemic Diseases. It consists in keeping up a purulent discharge, by means of a perpetual blister. The number of authorities adduced in support of this practice is astonishing; but the remedy is too severe to be frequently employed.

The next Memoir is by M. Girod, on Inoculation. He makes numerous punctures, and thinks that he lessens the number of eruptions in the same proportion.

The Memoir, by M. M. de Laffonne and Cornette, on the Solubility of Mercurial Precipitates in Water, contains some chemical facts of great utility. A specific remedy of this kind was proposed and submitted to the examination of M. Bucquer, whose health prevented him from making a proper enquiry. Our authors found that precipitates, prepared with effervescing alkalis, were soluble in some degree; but that their solubility was owing, and in proportion, to the air which they contained. We need not add, that their experiments were made with every precaution. The action of volatile alkali, on mercury, is of great consequence. We shall transcribe the substance of one passage. Quacks often boast that their secret remedy contains no particle of mercury; and they trust to the difficulty of discovering some preparations of this metal. If, however, some common spirit of sal ammoniac be poured on their powders, or dry extracts from their liquid preparations, and then the whole be gently warmed, a few drops will whiten a halfpenny rubbed clean.

The effervescing volatile alkali is found to dissolve mercury, precipitated from the nitrous acid by the mineral alkali.

M. Fourcroy's Memoir, on the Kermes Mineral, is also important. He found that kermes, free from salt, is immediately decomposed by a very pure alkali, that it becomes soft, and the colour changes to an orange. This is a good test of the purity of the medicine; but the caustic alkali must be prepared with great care. He found too, that the medicine thus changed, was a true liver of sulphur, antimoniated, soluble in water, and is the only hepatic solution known without colour; that the kermes, combined with fixed caustic alkali, is soluble in spirits of wine, though the experiment, for reasons not ascertained, sometimes fails; and that kermes may be made without heat, by triturating the caustic fixed alkali with antimony, and dissolving the mixture in boiling water. The utility of these solutions in medicine are to be enquired into; and the propriety of our author's method of making the kermes may be easily ascertained, from what was said on the subject in our last Number.

The two next Memoirs we cannot enlarge on; that on the best Purgative for Sheep is not very interesting; and M. Mauduyt's very extensive Essay on the Administration of Electricity, and the Diseases to which it is adapted, cannot be abridged, with the remotest expectation of being either interesting or useful.

M. de Horne's Memoir, designed to rectify some abuses in the operation of inoculation for the small pox, contains only a general account of the methods now commonly practised, with a slight reprimand to those who are not cautious in their choice of matter, or are too anxious to repress the eruptions.

The last Memoir is written by M. Lavoisier: it is on the Effects of Æther on the Animal Economy. This fanciful author thinks that the action of æther is in consequence, first, of its forming inflammable air, and combining with fixed air or other mephytic vapours in the stomach. This is, in his opinion, proved, by its becoming volatile in a heat less than that of the human body. Secondly, by its cooling effects, in consequence of absorbing heat, when it assumes the form of vapour. This is talking like a chemist, not like a physician. How is æther given? in a draught with water.—What is the heat necessary to volatilize the mixture? Here our author would be at a loss; but an apothecary may step to his assistance, and tell him that it is sometimes dropped on sugar. In that case, he will find it volatilized in the mouth, without reaching the stomach. If we destroy the first supposition, the second falls with it; but we may add, that æther is a stimulant, produces more heat in the human body than from its volatility it is capable of absorbing.

We must now finish our account of these interesting volumes: the continuation of the Society's labours we hope to attend to more particularly.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

A Complete Investigation of Mr. Eden's Treaty, as it may affect the Commerce, the Revenue, or the General Policy of Great Britain.
8vo. 3s. Debrett.

OF all that have been written against this celebrated treaty of commerce, the pamphlet now before us may be justly considered as the most copious and explicit. To an acknowledgment of the great labour which the author must have bestowed on so minute an Investigation, we wish we could add, that he has been actuated with a degree of candour correspondent to the importance of the subject, and with a spirit of enquiry more solicitous for the establishment of truth. But the praise which we award to his industry we are sorry that we must deny to the motives and execution of his performance. A criticism equal in extent to the pamphlet itself, would be necessary to expose the fallaciousness of this author with sufficient precision: we can therefore only take notice of the principal heads of the Investigation, and leave our readers to judge of the remainder from the few specimens we exhibit.

After a short historical detail of the commerce between Great Britain and France, in which the author has contented himself with giving only such calculations as were suitable to his private views, he proceeds to the consideration of the treaty, and begins with examining the four first articles of the tariff, or those relative to the French wines, brandies, vinegars, and oils. These, he observes, are articles, in which, so far from having an equivalent advantage, we cannot have the most distant degree of competition. 'The pretended principle of the treaty, says he, is reciprocity—how then is it that, in the very commencement of it, we see no less than four distinct and capital advantages conferred, for which not only not an adequate return is made, but no return at all?' In making this remark, the author is either really mistaken, or wishes to trifle with his readers; and considering his acuteness, as well as artful reasoning, in other parts of the Investigation, we are much more inclined to suspect him of the latter than the former of these motives. It is true, that in those articles, France enjoys an advantage incapable of any competition; but it is not less true, that such commodities as those above mentioned are by far the least advantageous to a nation of any which it exports. They are the produce of the soil more than of the industry of the inhabitants, and have, therefore, of all, the smallest tendency to produce public benefit; at the same time that, while Great Britain continues to import French wines, she is essentially benefited by procuring them at a cheaper rate than formerly.

merly. Indeed, the author appears to be so conscious of the insufficiency of this argument, that he rests his principal objection, to this part of the treaty, upon the allegation that the consequences of the tariff will be a great diminution of the public revenue. But in computing this supposed defalcation, the author proceeds upon erroneous principles; for he calculates the probable importation of French wines at its rate in former years, when the pernicious trade of factitious wines has been carried on in this country to a great extent, not only to the prejudice of health, but to the extraordinary detriment of the public revenue. There is, therefore, the strongest reason to expect that, by the great discouragement, if not the total abolition, of this infamous practice, the revenue, notwithstanding the reduction of the duties, will be but little diminished, perhaps really increased by the operation of the treaty.

The author next endeavours to shew, that by the above mentioned articles of the tariff with France, we shall entirely lose the trade with Portugal. The positive stipulation for a proportionable reduction of the duty on Portugal wines, he has the modesty to affirm, must prove totally insufficient for retaining the commerce with that nation. He even goes so far as to assert, that the Portuguese will absolutely receive none of our woollen cloths. But his notions on this subject are truly ridiculous; for he affirms immediately after, for a reason no less ill-founded, that the Portuguese will likewise refuse admission to the woollens of France; so that, according to his representation, the Portuguese will, from the effect of the present treaty, rather than trade either with Great Britain or France, determine to go naked; an operation which the most sagacious politicians, this ingenious author alone excepted, had, we presume, never once imagined.

Our limits will not permit us to expose the futility of this author's arguments through the subsequent parts of the Investigation. But while we must sometimes admire the art, and at other times smile at the representations of the author, we cannot but wish that his information had been more accurate, and his opinions and inferences less marked by the influence of error.

Helps to a Right Decision upon the Merits of the late Treaty of Commerce with France. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

To throw such light upon the circumstances of the commercial treaty, as may enable the members of the legislature to judge more decidedly concerning it, is an object worthy of attention. For this purpose, the author of the present pamphlet submits to them some considerations, containing information towards answering the two following questions: viz. 'If it has not hitherto been judged wise or necessary to have a treaty of commerce with France, how has it become wise and necessary to have

have one now? and is the present treaty so essentially different, and the state of the nation's commerce so greatly altered, that the present treaty ought to be approved by parliament, although that of 1713 was justly reprobated?"

In order to answer these questions, he takes a brief review of the English commerce for two centuries back, and especially of that part of it which was carried on between us and France

The detail of this subject is of too great extent for us to lay before our readers; but we shall avail ourselves of the inferences which he draws from them. These are as follow:

'That the trade, manufactures, and navigation of England were continually increasing, from the accession of Elizabeth to the treaty of Utrecht, notwithstanding the checks given them by foreign and civil wars; and that in no one period of that time had the balance of trade, distinctly considered, been against this country: that the injurious effects of an open trade with France have been most extravagantly exaggerated; and that, although the balance of our foreign trade increased most rapidly and considerably, after the importation of French merchandize was prohibited in 1677; much of the excess arose from other causes, and is not to be attributed to that prohibition; and that it also appears from this deduction, that there is not any thing in the merchandize or manufactures of France more particularly noxious to this country than in the like merchandize and manufactures of other nations: nor that the skill and diligence of French manufacturers are so unconquerable as to leave no hope for Englishmen to equal them in any of their fabrics; and consequently, that there is no impossibility of framing a treaty of commerce with France beneficial to this country.'

The author next examines the grounds on which the commercial treaty was rejected in 1713.

'The British merchant so often quoted, calculates, that in consequence of the stipulations of that treaty, our imports from France would annually have mounted to 1,712,559*l.* and that our exports thither would not have exceeded 270,181*l.* therefore, that a balance of near a million and a half would have every year accrued against us.

'Whatever credit this calculation is intitled to, still it ought to be considered, that in so far as the articles to be imported from France would not have interfered with our own manufactures, or were similar to what we took from other nations; the injury of receiving them from France, rather than from other nations, does not arise from the imported articles themselves, but must be transferred to the superior advantages allowed us in our exports to other nations, beyond what France was to have allowed us. For instance; as we have no wines of our own growth, it could be of no material importance to the na-

tion's commerce, whether we took our supplies from Portugal or France; providing we found the same demand for, and facility in, disposing of our manufactures and merchandize in France that we did in Portugal. This, however, would not have been the case with any of our fabrics under the stipulations of the Utrecht treaty, and our woollens were wholly excluded.

' But besides the great defect of the treaty, in not providing an advantageous market for British manufactures and merchandize in France, the permitting the importation of French manufactures into Great Britain, subject only to the general tonnage and poundage duties, would probably have been the ruin of our manufactures of silk, linen, iron, paper, and glass; which were then in an infant state, and by no means able to contend with those of France, which had attained a high degree of perfection; and therefore, on both these accounts, the treaty must have been highly pernicious in its operation, and every British subject has reason to rejoice that it never had effect; and more especially, as we may all have the great and solid satisfaction to perceive with our own eyes, that the trade and manufactures, and shipping of this country have increased, in a most astonishing degree, since the accession of the Hanover family in 1714: and, that notwithstanding our enormous expenditures in the three last wars, our lands have been improved, our towns enlarged and embellished; and whatever denotes wealth and prosperity has flourished beyond all example.'

The author acknowledges, that when our trade and manufactures have so greatly increased, the utmost caution ought to be used in making alterations in our commercial system; and that no experiment ought to be tried, whatever probability there may be of its success, if its failure may be prejudicial to our trade; unless we are urged to it by extremely forcible motives. Such motives, he thinks, really exist at this time, sufficient to render the experiment of a commercial treaty with France not only prudent, but essentially necessary to the welfare and happiness of Great Britain. The principal argument which he uses, and indeed the foundation of all the others, is the removal of the national prejudices which have so often been the cause of hostilities between Great Britain and France. This is certainly a consideration of great weight, and such as might, perhaps, more than compensate to the nation a treaty far less advantageous than that which is the object of enquiry.

The author observes, that the Treaty of Utrecht made no stipulation for the admission of our woollens into France; that important article of our commerce being left to the chance of a future negotiation, which is not the case in the present treaty. On account of this, and some other essential differences between the two treaties, he thinks the latter is entitled to the fullest approbation of parliament, though the former was justly reprobated. The author's statements and calculations, in the course of

of this pamphlet, we believe to be accurate; and his observations are well founded.

A View of the Treaty of Commerce with France: signed at Versailles, September 20, 1786, by Mr. Eden. 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

This author is a declared enemy to the treaty in question, which he insists will be immediately pernicious, and ultimately ruinous to the nation. He endeavours to support his opinion by a variety of considerations, too tedious to be minutely detailed. In the first place, he describes the danger which he supposes will arise to those manufactures in which we excel. On this subject, his notions are founded upon the evidence delivered at the bar of the house of lords in June 1785. In the next place he paints, in colours equally exaggerated, the danger to the manufactures in which we are excelled. Admitting that the supposed danger, in this case, may not be chimerical, it will be difficult to allow a similar possibility to the author's preceding proposition. Upon principles which must operate reciprocally, he nevertheless dooms Great Britain to all the danger, and generously compliments France with all the advantages, which can be supposed to result from the full operation of the treaty. This is a mode of reasoning which we cannot but highly reprobate. The author is a little more moderate in considering the operation which the French wines, vinegar, and brandy, will have on the wines of Portugal, and the liquors of Great Britain. But with respect to this subject, likewise, his apprehensions seem to be governed by the most unfavourable sentiments of the public conduct; and we cannot avoid remarking, that he makes not the smallest allowance for the advantage, in point of health, which the people of this country will enjoy, in consequence of the operation which he apprehends. In regard to the supposed calamitous effects of this treaty, the author involves Ireland in the same predicament with Great Britain. We are sorry to observe, that with a degree of industry well calculated for disquisition, he unites unjustifiable prejudices, and conjures up, by the help of a fertile imagination, such dangers and terrors as cannot, according to fair and unbiassed reasoning, lay claim to any probable contingency. The peculiarity of his sentiments extends to his language, which is not untainted with affectation, or a yet more blameable corruption. We shall instance only '*witto nations*,' and '*sentimonious interment*.' It is remarkable, that amidst the numerous and mixed operations, of which we may fairly suppose a treaty of such a nature to be productive, this author has not allowed it so much as the chance of a single advantage: a glaring proof of that prejudice so conspicuous through the whole of the pamphlet.

A Woollen Draper's Letter on the French Treaty. 8vo. 1s. French.

The commercial treaty with France is a subject of great importance, and must accordingly be productive either of very beneficial or pernicious effects on the interests of the nation. The real well-wishers of their country will be inclined to examine this measure with all possible candour and impartiality; but numerous, we fear are the motives which will influence others to condemn it, and even to reprobate it in the severest terms. Several classes of manufacturers, in particular, will be agitated with hopes or fears respecting its eventual operation. But men whose opinions are governed by the views of private interest, are certainly not the fittest persons to decide concerning the utility of such a treaty. On this account we ought to be extremely cautious in admitting the objections of those men who seem peculiarly interested to oppose that important design. In an enquiry relative to commerce, the title of *A Woollen Draper* may be esteemed a very favourable signature; but as we have often found *wolves in sheep's clothing*, we must acknowledge that we are a little distrustful of this author's sincerity, however speciously urged. He expresses the strongest apprehension that, if the intended treaty should take place, our woollen manufactures would be absolutely superseded in the home-market by those of the French. But before he affirmed the certainty of such an event, he ought to have shewn by what means the French could procure an additional quantity of wool, sufficient to afford so great an increase of their manufactures; especially as we have been informed, and we believe upon good authority (we use the modest manner of the Woollen Draper), that, without the importation of British wool, the French could not support their woollen manufacture, even in its present extent. The argument which the author draws from the opposition to the treaty with France, in the year 1713, can never be admitted as any proof of the pernicious effects of such a measure. It is unquestionable that the people, at that time, were more actuated by prejudice than by a dispassionate investigation of the subject; though there certainly were some very important objections to that treaty. Happy will it be, should not vain apprehensions be permitted to influence the public opinion in an affair of so great national importance as the present treaty. The interests of our woollen manufacture merit, no doubt, the most attentive consideration from those who have projected it; and we hope they will be sufficiently protected against the hurtful consequences, which, if this author does not really apprehend, he at least affects to anticipate, with a degree of plausibility, not unlikely to produce some effect on the minds of such readers as have not either the inclination or opportunity for a complete discussion of the subject.

A Short

A Short Review of the Political State of Great Britain, at the Commencement of the Year 1787. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

Free observations on the character and conduct of eminent personages, when written with the appearance of impartiality, seldom fail of being received with avidity by the public. In perusing such productions, the reader anticipates the satisfaction which will be reaped in a future age, when the actions of demised kings and princes, and of celebrated statesmen, shall be canvassed without fear of offence, and be praised or censured without the imputation of personal affection or dislike. The author of the present pamphlet has availed himself of this general principle in human nature, and sets out with observations on the highest character in the kingdom. Our limits will not permit us to gratify our readers with what occurs on this interesting subject. We must, therefore, refer them to the work; informing them only, that the scope of the author's remarks is to ascertain the causes of the sovereign's great popularity, amidst the unfortunate incidents in his reign. We meet afterwards with observations, equally free, on the character of a certain heir apparent. But to give a specimen of the author's manner, we shall extract the characters of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox, as delineated by the author of the pamphlet.

'Awkward and ungraceful in his person, cold and distant in his manners, reserved and sometimes stately in his deportment; Mr. Pitt is not formed to captivate mankind by the graces of external figure or address. Distinguished by no uncommon sensibility to the attractions of women, it is not from that sex he can expect the enthusiastic support, and more than masculine exertions, which his great political antagonist has repeatedly experienced on the most trying occasions. Little attached to amusement or dissipation, whatever form it may assume; and even, when he unbends to convivial festivity or relaxation, confined and private in its indulgence; his hours are dedicated to an almost unremitted application to the functions of his office. Parsimonious of the public revenue, and tenacious of the exhausted finances of a treasury drained by preceding profusion, his conduct, as minister, forms a striking contrast to the facility and prodigality of former administrations. Disinterested in his distribution of offices, and select in his choice of those on whom he confers employments, the nation has not regarded his abilities with more admiration than it has conferred applause and veneration on his principles. Endowed with talents unexampled for swaying a popular assembly; perspicuous and clear amidst all the energy and fire of oratory; ample, yet not prolix or diffuse, except from repetition; yet leaving no part of his subject untouched, or unexplained. Animated in debate, though cold and severe in conversation; copious in his diction, and select in every figure or expression with which he chuses to enrich or adorn his speech; addressing himself as much to the judgment

ment as to the imagination ; and gaining, by the mingled force of language and of conviction, a ready entrance to the heart : such is the present minister of the English people, and such is the impartial portrait of his virtues and his defects !

‘ At the head of that great band denominated the “ Opposition,” and composed of so motley materials, as no longer to be reducible to any fixed colour or form, appears Mr. Fox ; and, near him, co-ordinate, but not co-equal, his once great antagonist, though now his friend and fellow-labourer, lord North. — It would be mockery to regard the duke of Portland, however respectable and excellent in his private character, as other than the pageant of a party, round whom the chieftains assemble : — the lord Rockingham of 1787 ; and distinguished by nearly similar endowments of heart and of understanding with that departed marquis. If I place Mr. Fox foremost in this list, it is, that though inferior in nominal rank to lord North, he is far superior to him in all those qualities which demand, or which acquire dominion over the minds of men.

‘ Not more liberally endowed by nature with the graces of external figure, or with the elegance of manner and address, than his rival Mr. Pitt, he has yet an unknown and undescribable something, which pervades the darkness of his complexion, and sheds a sort of lustre across his saturnine features. Whether it can be termed a smile, I will not venture to assert ; but it certainly has the effect upon the heart, which smiles are calculated to produce, that of inspiring confidence, and exciting complacency. Descended from a monarch, distinguished by this peculiar and characteristic excellence of face, he may perhaps claim an hereditary title to it. Son to a nobleman, as much marked out by public obloquy and accusation, whether justly or unjustly acquired, as lord Chatham was by general favour and admiration, he cannot look for protection to paternal virtues, or plead the patriotism and disinterestedness of the house of Holland.

‘ Unequalled in the arts of attaching mankind to his person and fortunes ; steady and fervent in his friendships ; open and avowed in his enmities ; never abandoning those, under any circumstances, to whom he is bound by political ties, he is designed by nature for the chief of a party. Educated in the school of political learning, brought into the senate before he had attained to manhood, and joining a long experience to the vigour of natural talents, he may be considered as consummate in all that detail of knowledge, only to be acquired by an early initiation into the mysteries of a democratical government. Possessing powers of eloquence, less copious and brilliant, but perhaps more solid and logical, than those of Mr. Pitt, he is equally formed to captivate, to convince, and to subdue. Skilled either to entrench himself in almost impregnable fastnesses, or to carry the thunders of the war into the lines of the enemy,

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he can with the same facility imitate Scipio or Fabius : he can adopt the consular dignity, or the tribunitian rage. Abandoned in the more early stages of his life to the frenzy of play, and to all the dissipations of youth and unlimited profusion, a portion of those defects and errors accompanies his riper years, and sullies the lustre of his high endowments. So far from being like his more fortunate rival, indifferent to the company, or superior to the blandishments of women, Mr. Fox does not blush to appear with the companion of his softer hours, in a phaeton in Hyde Park, or in the first rows of a crowded theatre. Convivial in his nature, and open to social pleasures, he confirms his political triumph over the mind, by his private and personal conquest of the heart. Bold and decided, even to temerity, in his conduct as a minister, he is capable, by turns, of aggrandizing, or of diminishing the power of the crown ; and of justifying, by reasons and arguments the most plausible, the measure, of whatever nature, which he shall have seen fit to adopt.—Generous and beneficent in his disposition, placable and forgiving in his temper, his political enmities extend not beyond the limits of a debate, or the walls of a house of commons. Equal to his antagonist in all the sublime talents requisite for the government of an empire ; superior to him in modern and polite knowledge ; in an acquaintance with Europe, its manners, its courts, and its languages : he is inferior only in one requisite, an opinion of his public principle, generally diffused among the people. When to this great and inherent defect, is super-added the unquestionable alienation of his sovereign, both to his person and his party ; we may lament, but we cannot be surprised, that abilities so universal and sublime are left unemployed, and are permitted “ to waste their sweetness on the desert air.”

The only member of opposition, celebrated by the author, is Mr. Sh——n, for whom he evidently betrays a particular regard ; a circumstance from which, joined to another consideration, the author of the pamphlet cannot remain entirely unsuspected.

By a transition naturally enough to the author's plan, he has introduced the present situation of lord Rodney and Mr. Hastings ; at what he conceives the unmerited treatment of each of whom, he expresses a liberal indignation. Many of the observations in the pamphlet have no claim to novelty ; but it is written with spirit and elegance, though not free from affectation ; and sometimes sullied with redundancies, which we should not expect to find in so small a production.

Reply to a Short Review of the Political State of Great Britain, at the Commencement of the Year 1787. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bell.

The ostensible motive to this publication is, that the author of the ‘ Short Review ’ discovers inconsistency, and betrays prejudice, in some parts of the characters which he has drawn.

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We shall not entirely absolve him from the latter at least of these charges; but we think the replier is much more evidently open to the same imputation.

The People's Answer to the Court Pamphlet; entitled a Short Review of the Political State of Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

A few words may be sufficient to characterise a controversial production distinguished neither by argument nor wit. This pamphlet evinces yet greater inanity than the preceding. The replier and answerer affect equal indignation at a supposed, but by no means decided, partiality of the 'Short Review.' They seem likewise equal in respect of the degree, though not with regard to the particular objects of their prejudice. But the answerer is the more virulent abettor of domestic dissension; and, by arrogating to his own determination the sentiments of the people, he appears to be not more actuated with a respect for the public than with loyalty to his prince.

An Appeal to the Common Sense of the Nation. By S. Purlewent, of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

This Appeal relates to an act of parliament for repealing certain duties now payable upon wines imported, and for granting new duties in lieu thereof, to be collected under the management of the commissioners of excise. Mr. Purlewent, the author of the Appeal, represents this act as of the most dangerous tendency with respect to the liberty of the subject; and, as such, he argues warmly for the necessity of rescinding it.

An Address to Tradesmen, particularly Shopkeepers throughout the Kingdom. 8vo. 6d. Richardson.

This Address contains Observations on the Mischiefs and Obstructions arising to the Prosperity of fair Trade, from the Practices of Hawkers, Pedlars, Riders, Agents, Taylors, Smugglers, Cheap-Shops, and others. Subjoined are some Propositions for the Remedy of those Evils, and a farther Amendment of the Shop-Tax; with Remarks concerning Apprentices. The author, who is probably a tradesman, or shopkeeper, seems to be well acquainted with his subject.

A Collection of Letters on interesting Subjects. 12mo. 1s. Bramwell.

According to this anonymous author, king William the Third was a papist, and the pope the chief instrument in effecting the Revolution in 1688! After these assertions, it is unnecessary for us to make any remarks.

N O V E L S.

Victoria. A Novel. In Two Volumes. By Susannah Haswell. 12mo. 5s. in Boards. Hookham.

The author wishes to inculcate filial piety; and she has executed her design in a number of well-chosen pathetic tales.—

In such a cause Criticism smooths his brow, and takes off his spectacles, willing to see no fault. She who would support the cause of piety and virtue cannot err.

The History of Lady Emma Melcombe and her Family, by a Female.
3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Robinsons.

This lady petitions so strongly for indulgence that we cannot refuse her:

‘When women sue, men give like gods.’

In truth this pleasing narrative is frequently interesting, and inculcates some useful moral lessons. It engages the attention, though it does not captivate the fancy by any intricate arrangement of adventures, or any uncommon description of characters or events. This ‘female’ never attempts to delineate any humorous adventures, or to step beyond the bounds of common life. As she is neither ridiculous herself, or draws ridicule from others, her motto, ‘laugh where we must, be candid where we can,’ will remain inexplicable.

The Kentish Curate; or, the History of Samuel Lyttleton, a Foundling. Written by Himself. 4 Volumes. 12mo. 12s. Parsons.

As it is the indispensable duty of a reviewer to encourage merit, we must praise the Kentish Curate, for his new, laborious, and tedious history. As this novel is of a new kind, we shall draw from it a receipt to make a similar one: we love great names, and shall therefore add, that Aristotle drew the laws of the Epos from a poem already known.

If you wish to publish an extensive history, in numerous volumes, collect a few great names, and combine your important personages in a striking group. Their lives, which you may collect from any Magazine, will assist you; and any adventures from the same source may happen to your hero on the road, be related by some of his acquaintance, or introduced in an episode: there is no reason why you should not meet with every noted character of that period. The true spelling of names is of no great consequence; for, even in the title page of this great model, a fault occurs; and poets would rather be wrong with a Homer than right without authority. Slight anachronisms are of no great consequence: this author has never erred more than in about twenty years, though he was very near a blunder in an hundred. Virgil was not so successful. Your hero may change his residence; and, if he can be fortunately carried to America, the petition of congress, with different proclamations, and the events of a campaign, taken from the authentic records of an old newspaper, will, with ease, fill a volume.

Inhabitant of Grub-street! accept, with gratitude, our labours, collected from these immortal volumes, with no little trouble or disgust, relieved only by the occasional visits of Morpheus.—If thou canst not, from imitation, be an Homer,

thou

thou mayest at least shine—among the minor poets as an Apollonius.

The Child of Simplicity. A Novel. Written by a Lady. In Two Volumes. 12mo. 6s. Richardson.

‘Only think, Herbert, Latin, so old-fashioned for ladies!’ Thus exclaims our lady, and yet she quotes Latin; for her Preface claims the whole performance as her own. She says too, it is uncommon: this we have not found. It is the ‘Child of Simplicity;’ but the principal characters are of a very different kind. In short, she has established so few of her pretensions, that we may be allowed, with justice, to doubt her sex. The whole does not rise high enough to merit any critical decision, or sink low enough for absolute contempt.

The Annual Novellist. 4 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Lane.

A collection of tales, histories, and adventures, from Magazines and other periodical publications.

M E D I C A L.

A Dissertation on the Lues Venerea, Gonorrhœa, and Tabes Dorsalis, or Gleet. By S. Perry, Surgeon. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

This Dissertation is written with ease and pleasantry: it is an agreeable companion for an idle hour; but we cannot recommend it as instructive. The author brings us back to former ages, and what he says of others, in this respect, is true of himself. He thinks the source of the matter in gonorrhœa is an ulcer: he attacks it with mercurial applications and injections: he makes also little distinction between what is commonly called the general and the local disease. Yet if mercurials are really useful, we think larger doses than a grain of calomel, morning and night, would be required. He tells us his pills, which contain that dose, never fail, and we are inclined to believe him, because we think they are never necessary. He gives us no account of his treatment of the disease in the more confirmed state.

The philosophical and chemical account of mercury is full of error; and even his boasted pills, we think, are deficient in pharmaceutical accuracy. One fifth of the mass consists of salt of tartar and nitre; so that we should not be surprised if, in a damp day, the pills should disappear, by the deliquescence of the salts: indeed the author hints at their wanting a proper consistence. He resembles a physician who added half an ounce of soluble tartar to an infusion of tamarinds, and wondered that he saw a sediment in the bottom of the phial, while he was disappointed in the activity of his remedy; or another, who directed two drachms of the diuretic salt to be made into a bolus with confectio cardiaca, and lost both the salt and the electary.

Ob-

Observations on the Cure of the Dry Belly Ache. To which are added, The remarkable Effects of Fixed Air in Mortifications of the Extremities; and, the History of some Worm Cases. By John Harrison. 8vo. 1s. Galabin.

This quack bill, advertising a secret medicine for worms, appears in a new form, ushered in by some trifling observations on the cure of the dry belly-ache. We noticed its former appearance, in our Sixtieth Volume, p. 236. The method for the cure of the first disease is, the injection of a highly stimulating and drastic glyster, which in the early stages will probably succeed: in the later ones it will be highly injurious. The author speaks so confidently of procuring stools by this glyster, assisted with pills of aloes, galbanum, and assa foetida, that we suspect he has not been conversant with the disease in its most obstinate form.

A Treatise on the Gout. By Onslow Barret, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

Recommending a nostrum under the title of specific pills.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Two Farmers, an exemplary Tale: designed to recommend the Practice of Benevolence towards Mankind, and all other living Creatures; and the Religious Observance of the Sabbath Day. By Mrs. Trimmer. 12mo. 9d. or 8s. per Dozen to give away. Johnson.

This is a Sequel to the 'Servant's Friend,' noticed in our last volume, p. 239. It inculcates the useful moral of sobriety, industry, and humanity; and, in every respect, continues to deserve the character given of the former work. The industrious farmer is contrasted with the idle one; sobriety with drunkenness; a suitable plainness with fashionable show; humanity with cruelty. The proper path, the way to be rich, respectable, and happy, is pointed out so clearly and familiarly, that we think it cannot be easily mistaken:—we hope it will not.

Miscellanies on ancient and modern Gardening, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Walter.

A collection of pieces, in prose and verse; with passages from different poetic writers, for the purpose of inscriptions in a garden or pleasure ground.

National Improvements upon Agriculture. By David Young, Perth. 8vo. 5s. Bell, Edinburgh.

Nothing can be imagined more contemptible than these twenty-seven essays, in language and composition. The author affects great dogmatical knowledge, though evidently not conversant with philosophy. He recommends, indeed, the most essential principles of agriculture, but, with respect to the means of improving that science, he seems to be as much unacquainted as with physics. The Scoticisms, the prolixity of style,

style, the embarrassment, and the frequent repetitions, are sufficient to render a perusal of the work extremely unpleasant to any reader.

Appeal from Scotland. 8vo. 6d. Wilkins.

The author endeavours to demonstrate that the spiritual court of the church of England is repugnant to the British constitution. He appears to be an intelligent man; but by the application of his principles to a particular case, viz. that of lord George Gordon, perhaps his impartiality may be questioned.

Particulars of the remarkable Trials, Convictions, &c. of John Shepherd. 8vo. 1s. Bladon.

This appears to be a faithful, but tedious narrative of the subject. Shepherd had been an old offender, and was executed in November last.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

We have received our 'Old Customer's' Letter, and, in return will relate a little anecdote.

A sermon was sent to us, with a civil remark; that, if we did not chuse to speak *well* of it, we should be altogether silent. It was not a partial publication, but designed for the world in general, and we therefore speak of it *as it was*. Whether our opinion has given offence to its author, 'an Old Customer' can, perhaps, best say. This part of our Review is not properly adapted to the disquisitions which he has proposed; but he may be assured that we will take the earliest opportunity of enlarging on the subject; and we are in daily expectation of a publication which will allow us to do it with propriety.

WE are much obliged to Mr. H's very candid attention, and thank him for his conjecture, which appears to be a very satisfactory explanation. If he does not think it improper, and as it contributes to explain a former article, on which we requested an explanation, we shall lay a part of his Letter before the public, with some remarks which have occurred to us in the course of our enquiries.

To this gentleman, and to some others who are solicitous for our accounts of particular performances, we can only express our regret that we cannot answer them by the immediate insertion of our opinions. They must have seen that our circle is enlarged; and that, with the magnitude, the difficulty of our task is increased. We have already adopted a plan by which every author will probably be brought forward in a light adapted to his real importance; and we hope that this will be effected without any addition to our annual volumes.

